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1. Introduction

Schooling in British Columbia is a complex mix of politics, policies, procedures, places, pupils, pedagogues, parents, and the public. The focus of this massive enterprise is the individual child and the learning opportunities provided that child. In a schooling situation, the interaction between the child as pupil and the teacher as provider of relevant learning experiences is central to the child's development—whether intellectual, physical, aesthetic, or cultural. There can be no argument regarding the centrality of the teacher's role in the schooling of British Columbia's young people. The briefs submitted to the Commission provide ample evidence of their authors' recognition of the critical role played by teachers:

From Parents:

> "Our teachers do an incredible job. They have an immense task to perform and an enormous responsibility for the future of our province and of our children. Unfortunately, many parents, community members, and ministry officials underestimate the teacher's role and the responsibility that comes with it."

From Trustees:

> "The public must be reminded that the typical teacher continues to be a committed well-trained professional who works long hours on behalf of our children."

From Administrators:

> "These people are the front line of our delivery system and are the pivotal element of the whole enterprise."

These acknowledgements of the crucial role played by teachers in the education of the young are reflections of what has been firmly established by several decades of educational research—*the quality of schooling which a child receives depends first and foremost on the quality of the child's classroom teacher*.

While there is little argument that teachers can, and do, make a tremendous difference in a child's life, research support has been much more difficult to obtain with respect to those factors/qualities/traits which determine that one individual will be a 'good' teacher and that another individual will be a 'bad' teacher. Rogers and Brubacher (1988) present a picture of an exemplary teacher who reflects the personal and professional characteristics emerging from recent research on good teaching. The picture is of a real, but pseudonymous, teacher called 'Andy Smith'. Andy possesses the following characteristics:

Uniqueness as a person: His style is a special combination of personal traits and attributes along with his professional skill and ability.

Confidence: He has an aura of self-assuredness that permeates his approach to his work. In addition, his students know that he knows what he is doing.

Professionalism and autonomy: He takes the responsibility of making significant decisions about the scope and sequence of his curriculum, materials, and techniques.

Faith in collegiality: He likes to share ideas, debate solutions, and plan together with other colleagues.

High expectations: He holds high expectations for his students, both academically and behaviorally.

Lack of overt negative sanctions: His emphasis is strongly on positive motivation.

Intellectual challenge: His students know that they are required to think and to find answers for themselves.

High level of organization: His students know that the course is organized to the last detail.

Variety: He has a variety of teaching techniques.

Knowledge of content: His students know that their teacher is a master of his field. His mastery allows him to draw upon examples spontaneously, and to be creative and flexible at any moment.

Teacher control: His students have choices, but only within his framework and structure.

Respect for, concern for, and knowledge of, individual students: He is tough, but adjusts to the ability of his students.

Personal contact and accessibility: He is not a 'buddy', but he is available and open.

Broader, deeper goals: He holds broader and deeper goals to be important for his students. His students perceive his larger interest ("He wants us to make it on our own, without being pushed all the time.")

This report is about 'on-site personnel'—individuals who work in schools in an instructional capacity. The focus is on the largest group among those individuals—regular classroom teachers. It is a report about who they are, and about their expectations, their concerns, and their working conditions. In addition, it is a report about the need to attract male and female 'Andy Smiths' to teaching positions in British Columbia's schools and to ensure that they wish to remain once they arrive.

The remainder of this report is organized into eleven main sections. The first two sections describe the past and present characteristics of the public school teaching force in British Columbia's schools. The third section addresses issues concerning past and future supply of, and demand for, teachers. The following section describes past and present independent school teacher characteristics and likely future supply and demand. The fifth section deals with the basis for the comment made in subsequent sections. The remaining sections focus on teacher preparation, professional development, certification, competence, working conditions, compensation, and professionalism/unionism.

2. Characteristics of the Present Teaching Force in the Public Schools of British Columbia

The present teaching force in the public schools of the province of British Columbia comprises 12,695 male teachers and 15,349 female teachers. These counts include all public school personnel: classroom teachers, school administrators, librarians, learning assistance teachers, counselors, and school district administrative, special, and classroom support personnel. It is possible in some instances to identify data separately for different teacher classifications. On the whole, however, data are only immediately available for a gross category of 'teacher' or, on occasion, for categories of teacher, school administrator, or district personnel. Where available, and where it appears more useful to examine different categories than a single, all-embracing category, data are provided and discussed by category. Categorical discussion is only possible in a few instances, however.

The typical teacher in a public school in British Columbia in the 1986-87 school year was a male, full-time teacher at the secondary level. This description provides a rather meagre picture, however, since male and female full-time teachers are very close in number (12,370 to 11,349) and there are some differences between the 'typical male teacher' and the 'typical female teacher'.

The typical male teacher is 42 years of age, teaches a secondary school class of 24.7 students, was trained at the University of British Columbia, holds a Professional Certificate, and is at (or very near) the top of his salary scale with annual pay of $38,556. His female colleague is slightly younger (40 years old), teaches an elementary school class a trifle smaller (24.4 students), was also trained at the University of British Columbia, also holds a Professional Certificate, and is also at a high (but slightly lower) level on the salary scale, earning $34,612 per year. Salary figures are for classroom teachers.

While composite 'typical' or 'average' teachers may hold some interest, the very fact that they are composite masks a wealth of information. It is much more instructive to examine the variables which contribute to the picture of the typical teacher and examine each variable as it describes the entire teaching force. The remainder of this section of the report deals with the various descriptors of public school teachers.

2.A Age Distribution of BC Public School Teachers

As of September 30, 1986, the mean age of public school teachers in British Columbia is 41 years (males 42, females 40). The distribution of ages for all public school teachers is shown in Table 1.

An examination of Table 1 reveals that only 8.52% of British Columbia's public school teachers are under 30 years of age, almost half (45.75%) are in the 35 to 44 age range, and almost one-sixth (15.86%) are 50 or more years old. Figure 1 displays the data more graphically.

Table 1. Age Distribution of Public School Teachers, 1986-1987

	Age Group												
	<20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65+	Unrep	Total
n	0	372	2,015	4,257	6,897	5,933	4,009	2,548	1,490	405	6	112	28,044
%	0	1.33	7.19	15.18	24.59	21.16	14.30	9.09	5.31	1.44	0.02	0.40	100.01

Notes: Percentages do not total 100.00 due to rounding.
Includes part-time teachers as well as full-time teachers.
Includes all teachers (classroom, principal, etc.)

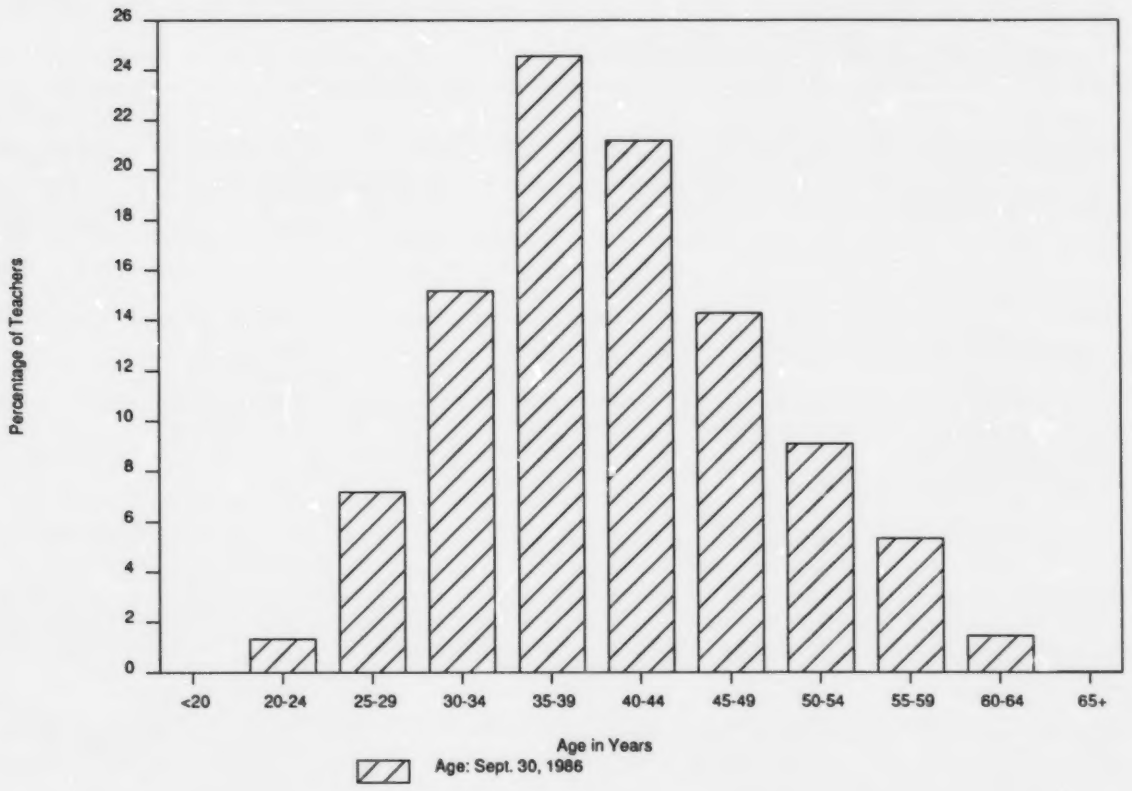

Figure 1. Age Distribution of Public School Teachers 1986-87

2.B Training of Public School Teachers

Most public school teachers (41.14%) received their initial teacher training at the University of British Columbia. Table 2 displays the location of initial teacher training for teachers new to the public school system in 1986-87 and for teachers who were active in the system before 1986-87. The other universities (SFU, 14.10%; UVic, 14.36%) and other sources from within the province (6.14%), combine with UBC to account for the initial training source for three-quarters of the province's public school teachers. Approximately one-seventh (14.44%) of the province's public school teachers come from other Canadian provinces. The remainder (9.74%) received their initial teacher training outside of Canada. It should be noted that a larger percentage of new teachers than active teachers have received their training from within the province and that, while UBC's percentage of the initial training 'market' is approximately the same for new teachers as for active teachers, the percentages for the other two universities have increased. There is a corresponding decrease in the percentage of out-of-province new teachers, particularly from sources external to Canada, as compared to active teachers.

For the vast majority of teachers who hold professional certificates, the certificate is accompanied by a university degree. Current provincial data are not available as to the type of degree held but Statistics Canada reports that 81.2%

of British Columbia's public school teachers held at least one university degree in the 1985-86 school year (latest year of available data).

Table 2. Numbers and Percentages of New and Active Teachers (1986-1987) by Place of Initial Training

Place of Initial Training	*Type of Teacher*					
	New		*Active*		*Total*	
	Number	*Percent*	*Number*	*Percent*	*Number*	*Percent*
British Columbia						
UBC	195	38.31	11,341	41.19	11,536	41.14
SFU	109	21.41	3,846	13.96	3,955	14.10
UVIC	116	22.79	3,911	14.20	4,027	14.36
Other	1	0.20	1,720	6.25	1,721	6.14
Total B.C.	421	82.71	20,818	75.60	21,239	75.73
Other Canada	67	13.96	3,982	14.46	4,049	14.44
Other Countries	9	1.77	2,725	9.90	2,734	9.74
Not Reported	12	2.36	10	0.04	22	0.08
Total	509	1.82	27,535	98.18	28,044	100.00

2.C Certification Levels of Public School Teachers

There are few teachers presently teaching in the public schools of British Columbia who do not hold either a Professional (85.01%) or a Standard Certificate (11.75%). The remainder (3.24%) are teaching on an Instructor's Diploma or on a Letter of Permission valid only for one year at a time. Table 3 provides details of certification levels of public school teachers separately for males and females. Almost all (94.82%) male teachers possess a Professional Certificate (reflecting a minimum of four years university training). About three-quarters (76.89%) of the female teachers hold a similar certificate. A small percentage of the males hold Standard Certificates (3.88%) or other certificates (1.30%). Approximately one-fifth (18.26%) of the female teachers have Standard Certificates and a small percentage (4.85%) hold other certificates.

Table 3. Numbers and Percentages of Teaching Certificates Held by Public School Teachers by Gender 1986-1987

Gender	*Type of Certificate*						
	Professional		*Standard*		*Other*		*Total*
	Number	*Percent*	*Number*	*Percent*	*Number*	*Percent*	
Male	12,038	94.82	492	3.88	165	1.30	12,695
Female	11,802	76.89	2,803	18.26	744	4.85	15,349
Total	23,840	85.01	3,295	11.75	909	3.24	28,044

Note: Male and female percentages within the table are percentages of the row totals (e.g., 94.82% of the males hold professional certificates

2.D Experience Levels of Public School Teachers

Table 4 sets out the numbers and percentages of public school teachers with various levels of teaching experience. The data are displayed by gender. The majority (63.52%) of teachers have been teaching for ten or more years, experience which reflects the age distribution of the teaching force displayed in Table 1. Males are, in general, more experienced than females—almost three-quarters (73.38%) of the males have taught for ten or more years as opposed to just over half (55.78%) of the females.

Table 4. Numbers and Percentages of All Teachers by Years of Experience and Gender, 1986-1987

Gender		Years of Experience 0	1-4	5-9	10-19	20+	unreported	Total
Male	Number	265	746	2,362	6,293	3,006		12,672
	Percent	2.09	5.89	18.64	49.66	23.72		45.19
Female	Number	618	1,787	4,342	6,561	1,952		15,260
	Percent	4.05	11.71	28.45	42.99	12.79		54.61
Unrep.	Number							112
	Percent							0.40
Total	Number	883	2,533	6,704	12,854	4,958	112	28,044
	Percent	3.14	9.03	23.91	45.84	17.68	0.40	100.00

NOTE: Male and female percentages within the table are percentages of the row totals (e.g., 2.09% of the males have 0 years of experience)

2.E Full-time and Part-time Teachers

In 1986-87, 86.52% of British Columbia's public school teachers occupied full-time positions. Approximately one teacher in seven (13.48%), therefore, has a part-time position. Table 5 shows the breakdown of full-time and part-time teachers by gender. While full-time positions are divided equally between males (50.98%) and females (49.02%), part-time positions are dominated by females (91.40%), possibly a reflection of the desire to supplement family income while still spending a lot of time with one's own children. Also, school districts have been quite willing to allow two teachers to share one full-time classroom position as one means of dealing with the need to reduce the size of the teaching force because of declining enrolments and government restraint.

Table 5. Numbers and Percentages of Full-time and Part-time Teachers by Gender, 1986-1987

Position	Gender Male number	Male percent	Female number	Female percent	Total number	Total percent
Part-time	325	8.60	3,455	91.40	3,780	13.48
Full-time	12,370	50.98	11,894	49.02	24,264	86.52
Total	12,695	45.27	15,349	54.73	28,044	100.00

NOTE: Male and female percentages within the table are percentages of the row totals (e.g., 8.60% of the part-time teachers are male)

2.F Salaries of Public School Teachers

Full-time public school teachers in British Columbia earned an average (mean) salary of $37,997 in 1986-87. That figure includes all allowances. Males earned an average of $41,146 (reflecting somewhat higher certification and experience levels) and females earned an average of $35,209. Table 6 contains salary averages for males and females by position. Differences in average male and female salaries for administrative positions probably reflect differences in certification and experience to some extent (especially for department head positions, which are only secondary level positions); however, most female administrators are in elementary schools—which are smaller and consequently have lower administrative allowances than similar positions in secondary schools.

Table 6. Mean Gross Salaries (Including Allowances) for All Public School Full-time Teachers by Gender and Position, 1986-1987

	Mean Salary in Dollars Gender			
Position	*Male*	*Female*	*Unreported*	*Total*
Principal	54,471	50,690		54,000
Vice-Principal	50,350	48,392		50,039
Dep't Head	42,371	40,096		41,689
Teacher	38,556	34,612	26,088	36,208
Total	41,146	35,209	26,088	37,997

NOTE: Calculations exclude school district staff and are therefore based on 12,360.28 males, 13,624.52 females, and 77.49 unreported.

Public school teachers in British Columbia are, as a group, well-certificated (see Table 3) and well-experienced (most with ten or more years experience—see Table 4). Their positions with respect to salary scale categories reflecting qualifications (Table 7) and with respect to their increment levels are correspondingly high. Only about one teacher in ten (10.92%) has fewer than four years of university (or equivalent) preparation. Almost seven teachers in ten (67.81%) have five or more years of such preparation.

Table 7. Numbers and Percentages of All Public Teachers by Salary Scale Category, 1986-1987

	Salary Scale Category						
	0	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*Total*
Number	66	331	2,663	5,966	13,593	5,425	28,044
Percent	0.24	1.18	9.50	21.27	48.47	19.34	100.00

With respect to salary increment placement, 59.80% of British Columbia's public school teachers are at or above the tenth increment. These increment levels represent maximum salaries in various districts. Table 8 shows the distribution of increment levels for all public school teachers.

Table 8. Numbers and Percentages of All Public School Teachers by Increment Level, 1986-1987

	Increment Level											
	0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10+*	*Total*
n	824	581	466	579	698	1,045	1,333	1,261	2,052	2,434	16,771	28,044
%	2.9	2.1	1.7	2.1	2.5	3.7	4.8	4.5	7.3	8.7	59.8	100.1

NOTE: Percentages do not total 100.0 due to rounding.

For all public school teachers (i.e. including district personnel), average salary in 1986-87 was $39,216. In addition to that average salary, teachers also received an estimated $5,993 in benefits (dental plans, pension, extended health, etc.). Total average cost per teacher was therefore $45,209. Benefits constitute 15.28% of salary and 13.26% of overall cost. The data are shown in Table 9 *(next page)*.

Table 9. Average Teacher Salary, Benefit Costs, and Benefit Costs as a Percentage of Salary Costs 1986-87

Salary in Dollars (Excluding Benefits)	*Benefit Costs in Dollars*	*Benefit Costs as a Percentage of Salary*	*Benefit Costs as a Percentage of Total Salary and Benefits*
39,216	5,993	15.28	13.26

2.G Summary

The present public school teaching force in British Columbia is well-prepared academically (81.2% have at least one degree as of the 1985-86 school year), experienced (63.52% have 10 or more years experience), aging (mean age is 41 years and only 8.52% are under 30), and on the higher salary scales and increments (average salary was $37,997 in 1986-87). The next section of this report provides a description of the changes that have taken place in the composition of the teaching force over the past decade.

3. Historical Changes in the Characteristics of the Teaching Force

The past decade has seen substantial shifts in the composition of the teaching force in British Columbia's public schools. Teacher qualifications have steadily increased (both in terms of degrees and certificates), a much greater proportion of beginning teachers are from sources in British Columbia (probably the result of extremely reduced level of available teaching positions), teachers have more experience, the teaching force as a whole is steadily aging, and there is a much greater proportion of teachers in part-time positions than at any other time. Teacher retention rates have varied over the past ten years, ranging from 88.87% to 91.93%. That variability may not appear great, but it does mean that the percentage of teachers lost each year has varied between 8.07% and 11.13%. A loss rate of 11.13%, rather than 8.07%, from June, 1986 to September, 1986 would have resulted in an additional 844 teachers being required in September. This part of the report provides the details of the above changes.

3.A Changes in the Distribution of Public School Teachers' Ages

The mean age of all public school teachers in the 1976-77 school year (as of December 31, 1976) was 37 years (see Table 10). In the 1986-87 school year, the mean age is reported to be 41 years—a substantial increase in mean age. This increase in mean age is reflected in Table 11 which shows age distributions for the public school teaching force over the decade. Figure 2 provides a graphic representation of the changes from 1978-79 to 1986-87. The largest changes have taken place in the youngest (20-29) age group (a decline from 26.8% of the teaching force in 1978-79 to 8.52% in 1986-87) and in the 40-49 age group (an increase from 19.9% in 1978-79 to 35.46% in 1986-87). It should be noted, also, that the oldest age group (60+) grew in proportion between 1978-79 and 1981-82 (from 2.2% to 2.6%) and then declined to 1986-87 (1.5%). The decline is likely due to early retirement incentive plans developed to encourage older teachers to leave the profession during times of declining enrolments and fiscal restraint.

Table 10. Mean Age of Public School Teachers 1976-77 to 1987-88

Year	*76/77*	*77/78*	*78/79*	*79/80*	*80/81*	*81/82*	*82/83*	*83/84*	*84/85*	*85/86*	*86/87*	*87/88*
Mean Age	37	37	37	38	38	38	39	39	40	40	41	41

Table 11. Age Distribution of Public School Teachers by Percentage in Each Grouping 1978-79 to 1986-87

Age Group / *Year*	*<20*	*20-29*	*30-39*	*40-49*	*50-59*	*60+*
1986-87	0	8.4	39.8	35.5	14.4	1.5
1985-86	0	8.3	41.5	35.1	13.1	1.9
1984-85	0	10.1	41.9	31.8	14.3	2.0
1983-84	0	12.8	42.5	28.7	13.9	2.2
1982-83	0	14.9	43.2	26.0	13.6	2.3
1981-82	0	16.7	43.0	24.5	13.2	2.6
1980-81	0	21.9	42.6	22.0	11.2	2.2
1979-80	0	23.8	41.0	20.8	12.1	2.2
1978-79	0	26.8	39.5	19.9	11.7	2.1

Notes: Data for years prior to 1978-79 are not immediately available.
Percentages will not total 100.00 due to rounding.

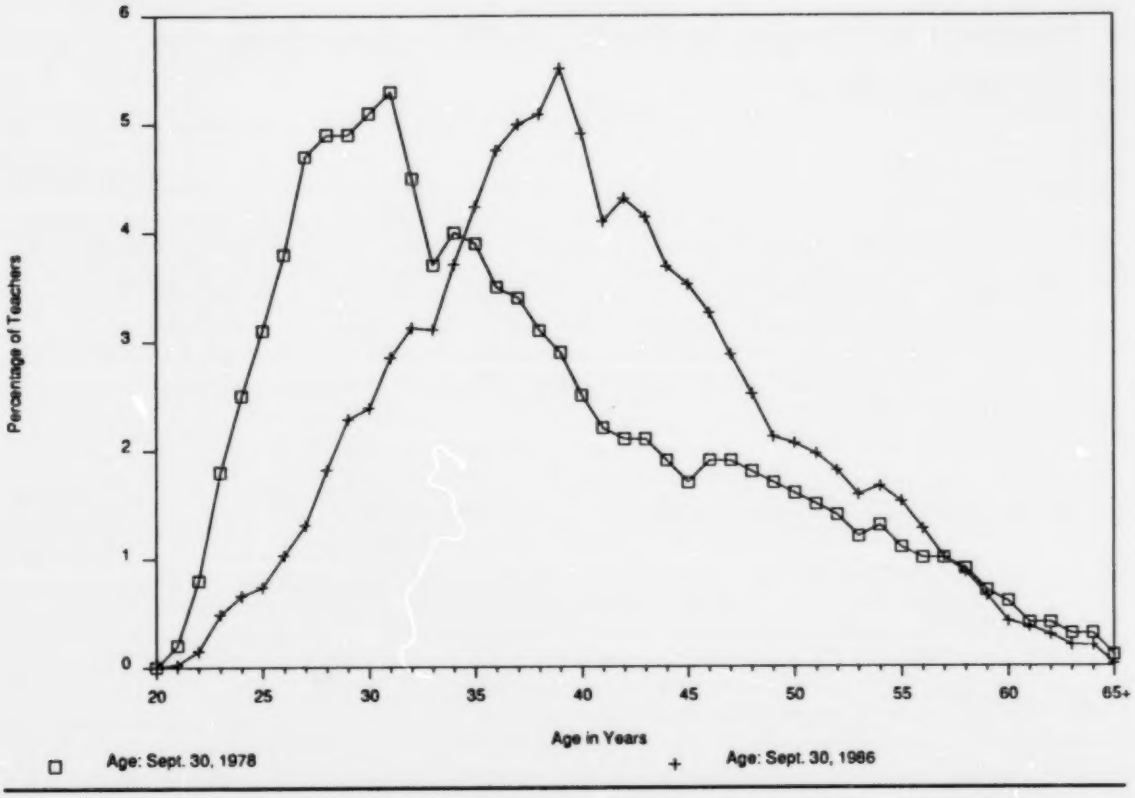

Figure 2. Age Distributions of the Public School Teaching Force 1978-79 and 1986-87

3.B Changes in Certification Levels of Public School Teachers

In the 1966-67 school year, 51.3% of the public school teaching force held Professional Certificates (indicating four or more years of university or equivalent education) and almost all the remainder (48.6%) held Standard Certificates (see Table 12). Only 0.1% of the teaching force was teaching under another licence. By 1976-77, 77.2% of the teaching force held Professional Certificates, 17.0% held Standard Certificates, and 5.8% were teaching with other licences. The increase in the proportion of teachers without Professional or Standard Certificates was likely due to the need for specialty teachers (e.g., French, Industrial Education, Home Economics, Music) during times of rapid growth in pupil enrolment. The increase in Professional certification was probably the result of the increased availability of degreed beginning teachers being produced by British Columbia's universities at the rate of between two thousand and twenty-five hundred graduates per year.*

The increasing professionalization of teachers in terms of degreed entrants into the profession is reflected in the steady increase in the percentage of teachers holding Professional Certificates during the 1976-77 to 1986-87 period. At present (1986-87), 84.7% of the teaching force hold a Professional Certificate. The proportion of teachers teaching under special certificates or licences has experienced a relatively steady decline over the same period.

* Some confusion exists between a 'qualifier'—that is an individual (with or without a degree) who is eligible for a teaching certificate—and a graduate. The vast majority of qualifiers recently will in fact be graduates of four-year degree programs. This difference has little effect on the discussion in this report.

Table 12. Percentages of Teachers by Type of Teaching Certificate 1966-67 and 1976-77 to 1986-87

Type of Certificate / *Year*	*Professional*	*Standard*	*Other (incl. non-reports)*
1986-87	84.7	11.7	3.6
1985-86	82.7	13.8	3.5
1984-85	82.4	13.8	3.8
1983-84	****	****	***
1982-83	82.3	13.8	3.9
1981-82	81.9	13.9	4.2
1980-81	80.2	15.5	4.3
1979-80	79.4	16.1	4.5
1978-79	78.7	16.4	4.9
1977-78	77.9	17.0	5.1
1976-77	77.2	17.0	5.8
1966-67	51.3	48.6	0.1

Note: The data for 1983-84 are anomalous, probably due to a change in format for the Ministry of Education Annual Report and a changeover to a new Ministry computer system. They have therefore been excluded from Table 12.

3.C Changes in the Training Sources of Public School Teachers

In 1966-67, there were 901 beginning teachers in British Columbia (beginning is defined as a teacher new to teaching in the province, regardless of any experience elsewhere). Of those beginning teachers, 610 (67.70%) were teachers whose initial teacher training was British Columbia. By the 1976-77 school year, 1,916 beginning teachers were reported, with 1,383 (72.18%) of them from British Columbia (see Table 13). For the next few years, British Columbia was the source of about three-quarters of the beginning teachers each year. In 1980-81, however, the picture changed rather noticeably, with British Columbia the source for only 68.55% of the beginners. By 1982-83, just over one-half (53.94%) of the teachers beginning to teach in the province's public schools had received their initial teacher training in this province. The accuracy of this percentage is somewhat decreased by the 14.39% in the 'Not Reported' category—the highest percentage of non-reports in the period under consideration (14.39% compared to a normal non-report percentage of about 1.00 percent).

The primary beneficiaries of the reduced BC percentage appear to be teachers from other Canadian provinces. Their percentage increased from 16.98% in 1966-67 to 17.54% in 1976-77 and to 25.41% in 1982-83 (down from a record 32.85% the previous year). It should be noted that the number of beginning teachers more than doubled (from 901 to 1,916) during the period from 1966-67 to 1976-77 but has dropped over the past ten years by about 75% (from 1,916 to 509), hitting a low point of 307 in 1984-85 and recovering to 509 in 1986-87. The largest single year-to-year drop occurred in the early 1980s—from 2,216 in 1981-82 to 799 in 1982-83, a drop of 1,417 new teachers). Fiscal restraint programs evidently had a major impact on the availability of new teaching positions in the province.

Table 13. Sources of Teachers Beginning Teaching in B.C. 1966-67 and 1976-77 to 1986-87

Year	British Columbia		Other Provinces		Elsewhere		Not Reported		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
1986-87	421	82.71	67	13.16	9	1.77	12	2.36	509
1985-86	285	84.57	31	9.20	11	3.26	10	2.97	337
1984-85	230	74.92	26	8.47	8	2.61	43	14.01	307
1983-84	********** Not Available **********								
1982-83	431	53.94	203	25.41	50	6.26	115	14.39	799
1981-82	1,254	56.59	728	32.85	194	8.75	40	1.81	2,216
1980-81	1,284	68.55	438	23.38	127	6.78	24	1.28	1,873
1979-80	950	74.98	232	18.31	75	5.92	10	0.79	1,267
1978-79	961	74.79	230	17.90	83	6.46	11	0.86	1,285
1977-78	1,309	74.25	298	16.90	135	7.66	21	1.19	1,763
1976-77	1,383	72.18	336	17.54	183	9.56	14	0.73	1,916
1966-67	610	67.70	153	16.98	138	15.32	0	0.00	901

Note: Percentages will not total 100.00 due to rounding

The figures depicting the changes in the number of beginning teachers (Table 13) are reflected in figures showing the number of university students qualifying for initial teaching certification (Table 14). The 1966-67 numbers are not immediately available, but, in the 1976-77 school year, 2,450 students in Faculties of Education in British Columbia's universities qualified for initial teaching certification. The number increased slightly (to 2,548) the following year and then declined (with the exception of one year) until the present. In 1985, only 1,128 students qualified for initial certification for the 1985-86 school year.

Even with the declining numbers of qualifying students, employment opportunities for beginning teachers have been relatively few over the past decade. In 1976-77, about three out of five (59.06%) qualifiers were actually teaching in September. The percentage dropped the following year to 51.22%, then wobbled between about forty and fifty percent until 1982-83, when it declined abruptly to 26.35%. Certainly, new qualifiers choose not to enter teaching for a variety of reasons but a decline to the point where only one qualifier in four (of a reduced number of qualifiers) is teaching in September of the qualification year is surely a reflection of reduced employment opportunities. The one-in-four figure actually represents a fifty percent improvement in the employment rate compared to that of the previous year (25.71% versus 17.91%). From a peak of 2,548 qualifiers available for employment in September of the 1977-78 school year, the number has declined to 1,128 available for employment in September of 1986. The difference amounts to a 55.73% decrease over that ten year period. Table 14 shows the year-to-year changes in numbers of qualifiers, the percentage change from the previous year, and the number and percentage of qualifiers actually teaching that September.

Table 14. Numbers of BC Faculty of Education Students Qualifying for Initial Teaching Certification 1976-77 to 1986-87

Year	Number of Qualifiers	Percent Change From Previous Year	Number Actually Teaching in Sept.	Percent Teaching in Sept.
1986-87	1,128	-5.61	290	25.71
1985-86	1,195	-2.77	214	17.91
1984-85	1,229	-12.40	199	16.19
1983-84	1,403	+2.11	366	26.09
1982-83	1,374	-8.40	362	26.35
1981-82	1,500	-9.04	760	50.67
1980-81	1,649	-26.91	796	48.27
1979-80	2,256	+2.61	1,045	48.32
1978-79	2,197	-13.78	966	43.93
1977-78	2,548	-4.00	1,305	51.22
1976-77	2,450		1,447	59.06

3.D Changes in Experience Levels of Public School Teachers

Since 1976-77, the average number of years of experience teaching for members of British Columbia's public school teaching force has risen from 10.0 years to 14.5 years (1985-86). The data are displayed in Table 15.

Table 15. Average Experience of Public School Teachers 1976-77 to 1985-86

Year	*76/77*	*77/78*	*78/79*	*79/80*	*80/81*	*81/82*	*82/83*	*83/84*	*84/85*	*85/86*
Av. Exp.	10.0	10.4	10.8	11.3	11.5	11.7	12.4	13.0	13.9	14.5

Note: Data source for this table is Statistics Canada: Characteristics of Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1985-86.

3.E Changes in the Proportion of Part-time Teachers

Twenty years ago, teachers were almost entirely (97.88%) full-time teachers. By the 1976-77 school year, the percentage of part-time teachers had more than doubled from 1966-67 (5.44% versus 2.12%). The percentage of teachers employed part-time has steadily increased since then—to almost one teacher in ten (9.39%) in 1981-82 and to nearly one teacher in seven (13.48%) in 1986-87. The 1986-87 percentage represents an almost threefold increase since 1976-77 in the part-time proportion of the teaching force. The trend is shown in Table 16.

Table 16. Numbers and Percentages of Full-time and Part-time Teachers 1966-67 and 1976-77 to 1986-87

Year	*Full-time Teachers*		*Part-time Teachers*		*Total*
	Number	*Percent*	*Number*	*Percent*	
1986-87	24,264	86.52	3,780	13.48	28,044
1985-86	23,937	86.88	3,614	13.12	27,551
1984-85	24,731	87.55	3,516	12.45	28,247
1983-84	26,251	88.85	3,293	11.15	29,544
1982-83	26,599	89.28	3,195	10.72	29,794
1981-82	27,496	90.61	2,849	9.39	30,345
1980-81	26,922	91.31	2,562	8.69	29,484
1979-80	26,557	92.14	2,264	7.86	28,821
1978-79	26,889	93.15	1,977	6.85	28,866
1977-78	27,137	94.16	1,682	5.84	28,819
1976-77	26,841	94.56	1,543	5.44	28,384
1966-67	17,365	97.88	377	2.12	17,742

3.F Changes in Costs for Salaries and Benefits of Public School Teachers

In 1976-77, the average salary (excluding benefits) for teachers was $17,861, with associated benefit costs of $2,635. The benefit amount represents 14.75% of salary excluding benefits and 12.86% of combined salary and benefit costs. Teacher salaries and associated benefit costs have risen steadily since that time. The average teacher in 1986-87 earned $39,216 and received $5,993 in benefits (15.28% of salary costs, 13.26% of combined costs). The changes in average teacher salaries and benefit costs are shown in Table 17 *(next page)*.

Table 17. Average Teacher Salary, Benefit Costs, and Benefit Costs as a Percentage of Salary Costs 1975-76 to 1986-87

School Year	*Salary in Dollars (Excluding Benefits)*	*Benefit Costs in Dollars*	*Benefit Costs as a Percentage of Salary*
1986-87	39,216	5,993	15.28
1985-86	38,141	5,127	13.44
1984-85	37,255	4,758	12.77
1983-84	36,452	5,006	13.73
1982-83	35,876	4,991	13.91
1881-82	34,221	4,762	13.92
1980-81	28,516	3,723	13.06
1979-80	25,233	3,381	13.40
1978-79	21,039	3,104	14.75
1977-78	19,548	2,884	14.75
1976-77	17,861	2,635	14.75
1975-76	16,157	2,384	14.75

3.G Changes in Degree Status of Public School Teachers

In 1966-67, over half (53.4%) of the teachers in the public school system of British Columbia did not possess a university degree. The picture changed substantially over the following ten years and by 1976-77 almost three-quarters (74.04%) of the public school teaching force had at least one university degree (bachelor, 64.38%; master, 9.43%; doctor, 0.23%). The proportion of degreed teachers continued to rise steadily until, in 1982-83, about four teachers in five (79.92%) held at least one degree (bachelor, 66.94%; master, 12.68%; doctor, 0.30%). Information concerning the type of degree held ceased to be reported provincially after 1982-83 so Table 18 shows only provincially generated data until that year. Using Statistics Canada data, however, the overall percentage of degreed teachers can be tracked until the 1985-86 school year. The final column in Table 18 shows the Statistics Canada percentages for British Columbia from 1976-77 on. It should be noted that provincially reported percentages differ by one or two points from the federal figures. The overall trend, however, appears clear in either case, although there appear to be some small downward deviations using the federal data. The differences are likely due to different definitions of the teaching personnel included in the calculations.

Not only has there been a steady increase in the percentage of teachers holding various degrees, but there has also been a comparable increase in the percentage of the B.C. public school teaching force who hold graduate degrees rather than bachelors' degrees. Table 19 shows Statistics Canada information for 1966-67 and from 1976-77 to 1985-86, the latest year of data availability. It should be noted that the 1985-86 figure appears to be erroneous in that it indicates a huge increase in the percentage of graduate degrees compared to previous years.

Table 18. Number and Percentage of Teachers by Type of Degree 1966-67 and 1976-77 to 1985-86

Year	Type of Degree					Percent Degreed	
	Bachelor	Master	Doctor	Total Degreed	Total Teachers	Provincial Figures	Statistics Canada
1985-86							81.2
1984-85							80.7
1983-84							81.0
1982-83	19,944	3,777	90	23,811	29,794	79.92	81.3
	(66.94)	(12.68)	(0.30)				
1981-82	20,287	3,856	96	24,239	30,382	79.78	81.1
	(66.77)	(12.69)	(0.32)				
1980-81	19,420	3,723	87	23,230	29,484	78.79	80.2
	(65.87)	(12.63)	(0.30)				
1979-80	18,921	3,423	79	22,423	28,821	77.80	79.1
	(65.65)	(10.89)	(0.27)				
1978-79	18,950	3,144	69	22,163	28,866	76.78	78.0
	(65.65)	(10.89)	(0.24)				
1977-78	18,650	2,920	72	21,642	28,820	75.09	76.2
	(64.71)	(10.13)	(0.25)				
1976-77	18,200	2,666	65	20,931	28,269	74.04	70.4
	(64.38)	(9.43)	(0.23)				
1966-67	7,407	849	23	8,279	17,742	46.67	
	(41.75)	(4.78)	(0.13)				

Note: Percentages of Bachelor, Master, and Doctor will not necessarily equal the provincial percentage due to rounding.

Table 19. Holders of Master and Doctor Degrees as a Percentage of Holders of Bachelor Degrees 1966-67 and 1976-77 to 1985-86

Year	66-67	76/77	77/78	78/79	79/80	80/81	81/82	82/83	83/84	84/85	85/86
Percent	11.7	15.0	16.0	17.0	18.5	19.6	19.5	19.4	19.0	20.1	24.1

Note: Data source for this table is Statistics Canada: Characteristics of Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, various years.

3.H Changes in Public School Teacher Retention Rates

Over the period from the 1976-77 school year to the 1986-87 school year, teacher retention rates have varied between 88.87% and 92.03%. Retention rate is defined as the percentage of the previous year's teachers who return to teaching in September. The average retention rate over the period in question is 90.91%. The numbers and percentages are shown in Table 20. The average number of teachers who do not return in September has ranged from 2,222 to 3,135, an average loss of approximately 2,800 teachers per year. Average loss for the past five years (1982-83 to 1986-87) has been about 2,550.

Table 20. Teacher Retention Rates 1976-77 to 1986-87

Year	*Number of Teachers Returning*	*Number of Teachers in Previous Year*	*Percent Returning*	*Number Lost*	*Percent Lost*
1986-87	25,329	27,551	91.93	2,222	8.07
1985-86	25,515	28,247	90.33	2,732	9.67
1984-85	25,034	27,551	90.86	2,517	9.14
1983-84	27,418	29,794	92.03	2,376	7.97
1982-83	27,524	30,435	90.44	2,911	9.56
1981-82	26,391	29,484	89.51	3,093	10.49
1980-81	25.949	28,821	90.04	2,872	9.96
1979-80	25,972	28,866	89.97	2,894	10.03
1978-79	25,974	28,819	90.13	2,845	9.88
1977-78	25,342	28,477	89.99	3,135	11.01
1976-77	24,765	27,867	88.87	3,102	11.13

4. Future Supply and Demand for Teachers in British Columbia

The previous sections of this report have described the teaching force as it is presently composed and the changes in its composition over the previous decade. This section deals with future characteristics and pays particular attention to the likely supply of, and demand for, teachers in British Columbia. Predictions are made on the basis of trends identifiable in the data from the past ten years and on the assumption that only a few variables have major impact on the supply-demand relationship.

4.A Teacher Demand and Pupil Enrolment Forecasts

There are essentially two majors influencing the demand for teachers—the number of students, and the pupil-teacher ratio (PTR). Obviously, other variables influence both of these factors—the PTR, for example, is highly dependent on the extent to which government is willing to fund the educational enterprise. The predictions here, therefore, are based on the assumption that the present PTR (17.71 as of October, 1986) will be maintained. It should be noted that, at staffing levels of the 1986-87 school year, a difference of 0.10 in the PTR represents a difference of approximately 160 teaching positions.

Table 21 contains Ministry of Education figures for actual public school pupil enrolment (headcounts) for 1987-88 and projections for September of each year from 1988 to 1997. Table 23 shows projected numbers and rates of increase over the same ten-year period. It can be seen that overall enrolment is predicted to rise in each year, beginning slowly (+0.25%) in 1988-89 and rising to a continued increase of over one and a half percent from 1993-94 on. For the first three school years, however, only elementary enrolment is increasing; secondary enrolment is projected to decline until the 1991-92 school year. The following year, the secondary rate of increase is predicted to surpass the elementary rate and continue rapid growth (double the elementary rate) thereafter.

Table 21. Actual and Projected Public School Enrolments, Sept. 1987-Sept. 1997

Enrolment by Level *September of Year*	*Kindergarten*	*Elementary*	*Secondary*	*Total*
1987 (actual)	38,885	260,501	191,848	491,234
Projected 1988	39,137	265,260	188,086	492,483
1989	39,852	270,553	185,800	496,205
1990	39,579	276,172	185,400	501,151
1991	38,792	281,198	186,705	506,695
1992	40,469	284,326	189,432	514,227
1993	41,021	288,455	192,528	522,004
1994	41,540	292,277	196,811	530,628
1995	42,056	295,267	202,055	539,378
1996	42,606	298,545	207,115	548,266
1997	43,168	301,489	212,087	556,744
Total increase 1987 to 1997	4,283	40,988	20,239	65,510

Table 22. Enrolment Changes and Percentage Changes in Enrolments by Level Sept. 1987 to Sept. 1997

September of Year	*Level* Kindergarten Change	Kindergarten Percent	Elementary Change	Elementary Percent	Secondary Change	Secondary Percent	Total Change	Total Percent
1988	+252	+0.65	+4759	+1.83	-3762	-1.96	+1249	+0.25
1989	+715	+1.83	+5293	+1.99	-2286	-1.22	+3722	+0.76
1990	-273	-0.69	+5619	+2.08	-400	-0.22	+4946	+0.99
1991	-787	-1.99	+5026	+1.82	+1305	+0.70	+5544	+1.11
1992	+1677	+4.32	+3128	+1.11	+2727	+1.46	+7532	+1.49
1993	+552	+1.36	+4129	+1.45	+3096	+1.63	+7777	+1.51
1994	+519	+1.27	+3822	+1.32	+4283	+2.22	+8624	+1.65
1995	+516	+1.24	+2990	+1.02	+5244	+2.66	+8750	+1.65
1996	+550	+1.31	+3278	+1.11	+5060	+2.50	+8888	+1.65
1997	+562	+1.32	+2944	+0.99	+4972	+2.40	+8478	+1.55
Total Change 1987 to 1997	+4283	+11.01	+40,988	+15.73	+20,239	+10.55	+65,510	+13.34

The predicted changes in enrolments call for more teaching positions each year if a pupil-teacher ratio of 17.71 is to be maintained (see Table 23). Initially, additional positions are required only at the elementary level—there is a predicted reduction in the number of secondary positions. Even at the elementary level, the increases are not universal—in the 1990-91 and 1991-92 school years, kindergarten enrolment is predicted to decline and reduce the number of required teaching positions by about 30 over that period. Overall, by the 1997-98 school year, an additional 120 kindergarten teachers are projected to have been needed (about 15 per year starting in 1993-94), another 2300 elementary teachers (about 230 per year, on average) are projected, and 1150 more secondary teachers are projected (after a decline of about 360 in the first three years). In total, approximately 3600 additional teaching positions are projected over the next ten years.

Table 23. Number of Additional Teachers Required to Maintain Present Pupil-Teacher Ratio Given Projected Increases in Enrolment 1988-89 to 1996-97

Year	*Level* Kindergarten	Elementary	Secondary	Total	Aggregate
1988-89	+7.12	+268.72	-212.42	+63.42	+63.42
1989-90	+20.19	+298.87	-129.08	+189.98	+253.40
1990-91	-7.71	+317.28	-22.59	+286.98	+540.38
1991-92	-22.22	+283.79	+73.69	+335.26	+875.64
1992-93	+47.34	+176.62	+153.98	+377.94	+1,253.58
1993-94	+15.58	+233.15	+174.82	+423.55	+1,677.13
1994-95	+14.66	+215.81	+241.84	+472.31	+2,149.44
1995-96	+14.57	+168.83	+296.10	+479.50	+2,628.94
1996-97	+15.53	+185.09	+285.71	+486.33	+3,115.27
1997-98	+15.87	+166.23	+280.75	+462.85	+3,578.12

Note: Each Kindergarten pupil is considered as 0.5 FTE; the number of teachers required is therefore half of what the headcount figures would indicate.

In addition to the new teachers anticipated as a result of increasing enrolments, replacement teachers are required annually for teachers who retire or who leave the profession for other reasons (see Table 20 for loss rates). If the average loss rate for the past ten years is taken as the predicted loss rate from now on, approximately 10.68% (about 3,100) of the teaching force would require replacements each year. This percentage may be an overestimate, however, since more recent years have lower loss rates than earlier years. A five-year average loss rate of 8.88% is probably a more realistic figure to use although loss rates could increase given the general aging of the teaching force. Using 8.88% as

the loss rate calls for about 2,500 replacements in 1988-89, rising to about 2,800 replacements in 1997-98. Projected requirements are in Table 24.

Table 24. Projected Number of Teachers Required for Enrolment Growth and for Replacement 1988-89 to 1997-98

Year	*New Positions*	*Replacements*	*Total*	*Aggregate*
1988-89	63	2,490	2,553	2,553
1989-90	190	2,496	2,686	5,239
1990-91	287	2,513	2,800	8,039
1991-92	335	2,538	2,873	10,912
1992-93	378	2,568	2,946	13,858
1993-94	424	2,602	3,026	16,884
1994-95	472	2,640	3,112	19,996
1995-96	480	2,682	3,162	23,158
1996-97	486	2,724	3,210	26,368
1997-98	463	2,767	3,230	29,598

4.B Teacher Supply

It is estimated by the Unemployed Teachers' Action Centre that there are eight or nine thousand unemployed teachers in British Columbia (this figure is given as a conservative estimate). Combined with present university Faculty of Education output of roughly 1200 graduates per year, this figure indicates an adequate supply of teachers until at least the 1991-92, and probably the 1992-93, school year (although specific subject areas might well exhibit shortages before then). Once the existing surplus of teachers is used up, however, a minimum shortage of approximately 1,800 teachers per year is likely. Should the universities increase their enrolments to the levels of the late 1970s (about 2,500 per year) and every graduate enter the profession (extremely unlikely) the shortfall would still be about 500 teachers per year. The latter figure ignores the lag necessary to increase university enrolments and to graduate the larger classes.

The foregoing comments about the adequacy of teacher supply until the early 1990s ignore some crucial issues. First, as more teaching positions become available, it is highly likely that teachers (especially specialty teachers) who are presently teaching in more remote sections of the province will gravitate toward the larger population centres. Consequently, school districts outside of the larger centres may experience difficulties in obtaining qualified teachers much earlier than numbers would indicate. The 1986-87 Ministry of Education Annual Report indicates that the early signs of such difficulties have already manifested themselves in a few districts (page 53). Second, as more positions open up in the higher-paying public school system, many teachers with provincial certificates who are now teaching in independent schools (often because of the lack of openings in the public system) are likely to switch to a public school position. Third, even in the late 1970s, when the demand for teachers was quite high and university graduating classes comprised over 2,000 potential teachers, fewer than sixty percent of the university graduates actually entered the teaching force in a given year. Since 1982, of course, the percentage has declined by half. It is reasonable to assume, however, that a high demand for teachers could return the percentage to its pre-restraint level. Even so, assuming both a return to pre-1982 participation levels and increased university output, it is likely that only about 1,300 or so graduates per year would actually enter the teaching force. In that case, the shortfall would amount to about 1,700 or 1,800 per year rather than the 500 suggested above. Without an increase in university Faculty of Education output, the difference between the number of teachers needed and the number available would be approximately 2,400 to 2,500 per year by the early 1990s. It should be noted that the assumption that eight or nine thousand unemployed teachers are available to cushion the impact of increasing enrolments in considered tenuous in many quarters.

4.C Summary

Over the next ten years, public school enrolment is projected to increase by about 65,000 pupils (see Table 22). Using the 1987-88 pupil-teacher ratio of 17.71, that increase implies that the system will require an additional 3,600 teachers. In addition to those teachers needed as a result of enrolment growth, another 26,000 teachers are estimated to be required to replace teachers who leave the profession for one reason or another (see Table 24). The present number of unemployed teachers is estimated to be eight or nine thousand. That number is sufficient to provide for teacher addition and replacement until the 1990-91 school year (assuming that those presently unemployed have the necessary qualifications and desire to teach). With a university graduation level of about 1,200 teachers per year, and an actual teacher supply of fifty or sixty percent of those who graduate, supply needs are probably capable of being met until about 1991-92. An increase in university intake rates is not likely without a two-year lead time from the point at which resources are made available. The first graduates from increased graduating classes would be at least another two years beyond that time (for individuals already holding university degrees) and, in the majority of cases, probably five years. Without any change in university enrolments, the projected shortage of teachers hits about 2,400 to 2,500 per year by 1993-94.

It should be noted here that British Columbia is not alone in facing a projected shortage of teachers. All across Canada, teacher training institutions have reduced their enrolments during the past decade as a result of declining school populations and funding reductions. At the same time that British Columbia will need to recruit teachers from other provinces and from abroad, other provinces with be seeking to increase the size of their teaching forces. The historical sources of supply for British Columbia's teachers in times of shortage may well be inadequate in the face of the anticipated demand and competition.

Finally, reductions in teacher supply will likely result in certain areas of the province experiencing shortages in specialty teaching areas fairly early, as specialty teacher demand increases in larger population centres. In addition, as the population centres' demand for all types of teachers increases, it is not at all improbable that a migration of teachers from outlying areas will occur.

5. Independent School Teachers

The data available with respect to the public school system of British Columbia are comprehensive, both in the extent of data collected and the number of years for which such data are available. Unfortunately, there is little comparable data for the independent schools in the province, essentially due to the lack of an all-encompassing central authority with a mandate to collect data. The Ministry of Education began collecting certain types of independent school data in 1977-78, when the Independent Schools Support Act (allowing for public funding of independent schools meeting certain criteria) was passed by the government. A large number of independent schools, however, are not represented in Ministry data, particularly in earlier years, since not all independent schools receive public monies. In addition, no data are available for age, training sources, numbers of full-time and part-time teachers, salaries, and benefits. Nonetheless, it is still possible to describe (albeit in a rather sketchy manner) some of the characteristics of the independent school teaching force.

5.A Certification Levels of Independent School Teachers

Data regarding the certification levels of independent school teachers are only authoritatively available for a three-year period (1985-86 to 1987-88) and only for teachers in Group 2 funded schools (schools with an adequate teaching facility, provincial time requirements for curriculum, participation in provincial assessments and examinations, etc.). In these schools, about seventeachers in ten (68.96%) presently hold British Columbia teaching certificates, a slight increase over the three years in question. An additional 24.46% hold Independent School Certificates, a drop of about four percent from 1985-86. The remaining 6.58% are teaching on permits or are acting as volunteers. This last figure represents a doubling (from 3.47%) from the 1985-86 percentage. Details of certification by gender are presented in Table 25. No breakdown as to the type of British Columbia certificate is available.

Table 25. Percentages of Group 2 Funded Independent School Teachers by Type of Teaching Certificate and Level Taught 1985-86 to 1987-88

	Type of Certificate								
	British Columbia			*Independent School*			*Other*		
Year	*Elem.*	*Sec.*	*Total*	*Elem.*	*Sec.*	*Total*	*Elem.*	*Sec.*	*Total*
1987-88	69.72	67.77	68.96	23.30	26.28	24.46	6.98	5.94	6.58
1986-87	69.14	67.94	68.65	26.86	28.14	27.38	4.00	3.92	3.97
1985-86	68.22	67.05	67.75	28.04	29.90	28.78	3.74	3.05	3.47

5.B Experience Levels of Independent School Teachers

For the three-year period 1985-86 to 1987-88, the mean experience level of independent school teachers (Group 2 schools) is given in Table 26. Experience levels are approximately two-thirds of those in the public school system (see Table 15).

Table 26. Mean Experience Level of Group 2 Funded Independent School Teachers 1985-86 to 1987-88

Year	*1985-86*	*1986-87*	*1987-88*
Mean Exp.	9.74	10.01	9.66

5.C Degree Status of Independent School Teachers

The percentages of Group 2 independent school teachers possessing university degrees during 1985-86 through 1987-88 are shown in Table 27. No data regarding the level of the degree are available. The percentage of degreed teachers has declined over the three years from 73.19% in 1985 to 71.78% in 1987. The decline has taken place at the elementary level. Reasons for such a decline are not readily apparent and the time period in question is too short to define a trend with any degree of certainty.

Table 27. Percentages of Group 2 Funded Independent School Teachers Holding University Degrees by Level Taught 1985-86 to 1987-88

	Level Taught								
	Elementary			*Secondary*			*Total*		
	85-86	86-87	87-88	85-86	86-87	87-88	85-86	86-87	87-88
Percent Degreed	65.04	63.31	62.11	86.00	84.31	86.26	73.19	71.91	71.78

5.D Pupil Enrolment in Independent Schools

Enrolment data for independent schools in general are provided in Statistics Canada publications.[1] The information for school years 1976-77 through 1987-88 is displayed in Table 28. As a percentage of the overall number of school age children in the province, the number attending independent schools has increased steadily over that period (from 4.2% to 6.8%). The actual number increase is about 12,000 pupils (49.42%). Public school enrolment declined by about 50,000 pupils (roughly ten percent) over the same time span.

Table 28. Independent School Population (headcounts) as a Percentage of Combined Independent and Public School Enrolments (headcounts) 1976-77 to 1986-87

Year	*Independent*	*Public*	*Combined*	*Percent Independent*
1987-88 (est.)	35,400	486,500	521,900	6.8
1986-87	34,220	486,300	520,520	6.6
1985-86	33,553	486,777	520,330	6.4
1984-85	30,326	491,264	521,590	5.8
1983-84	29,118	497,312	526,430	5.5
1982-83	28,280	500,336	528,616	5.3
1981-82	27,936	503,371	531,307	5.2
1980-81	26,314	509,805	536,119	4.9
1979-80	24,827	511,671	536,498	4.6
1978-79	24,556	517,786	542,342	4.5
1977-78	23,691	527,769	551,460	4.3

Note: The Statistics Canada figures for public school enrolments are somewhat higher than equivalent provincial figures. It seems reasonable to use the same source for both independent and public school figures, however.

The figures in Table 28 comprise all independent school pupils. It is possible to examine enrolments in only those schools receiving public funding—for those schools, provincial figures are available. The numbers of schools and pupils qualifying for public funding has steadily increased since the passage of the funding bill in 1978. Table 29 shows the increase in qualifying pupils over that period. Information is provided for both Group 2 and Group 1 (lower funding rate, fewer restrictions) schools. Table 30 shows the rate of increase in the number of qualifying pupils for the same time period and Table 31 shows the number of qualifying pupils as a percentage of combined public school and funded independent school enrolment. Ministry of Education figures indicate an annual increase of approximately six percent per year in the number of qualifying pupils (1985-86 Annual Report, page 66). The average increase since 1978-79 has been 5.75%.

Table 29. Numbers of Independent School Pupils Qualifying for Public Funding 1978-79 to 1986-87

Year	*78-79*	*79-80*	*80-81*	*81-82*	*82-83*	*83-84*	*84-85*	*85-86*	*86-87*
Grp 2	17,367	17,524	19,176	22,240	21,771	23,416	24,760	26,040	27,204
Grp 1	453	727	469	617	704	864	1073	815	674
Total	17,820	18,251	19,645	21,857	22,475	24,280	25,833	26,855	27,878

Table 30. Number and Percentage Increase in Independent School Pupils Qualifying for Public Funding 1978-79 to 1986-87

Year	*79-80*	*80-81*	*81-82*	*82-83*	*83-84*	*84-85*	*85-86*	*86-87*
Increase over last year	431	1,394	2,212	618	1,725	1,553	1,022	1,023
Percent	2.4	7.6	11.3	2.8	7.7	6.4	4.0	3.8

Table 31. Funded Independent School Population in Full-time Equivalent Students and as a Percentage of Combined Funded Independent and Public School FTE Enrolments 1978-79 to 1986-87

Year	*Independent*	*Public*	*Combined*	*Percent Independent*
1986-87	27,878	467,053	495,018	5.65
1985-86	26,855	467,767	494,517	5.41
1984-85	25,833	472,264	498,717	5.13
1983-84	24,280	478,544	502,794	4.82
1982-83	22,476	482,255	504,731	4.45
1981-82	21,858	485,604	507,462	4.31
1980-81	19,645	492,053	511,677	3.84
1979-80	18,251	494,522	512,773	3.56
1978-79	17,820	500,198	518,018	3.44

5.E Pupil-Teacher Ratio in Independent Schools

Table 32 contains the pupil-teacher ratios for Group 2 independent schools from 1985-86 to 1987-88. Over those three years, the ratio has declined from 15.79 to 14.85, about three pupils per teacher lower than in the public schools (public school PTR is 17.71 for 1987-88). Again, the data are too few to warrant any firm decision regarding trend.

Table 32. Pupil-Teacher Ratio for Group 2 Independent Schools 1985-86 to 1987-88

Year	*1985-86*	*1986-87*	*1987-88*
PTR	15.79	15.53	14.85

5.F Teacher Supply and Demand in Independent Schools

There are presently an estimated 35,400 pupils (see Table 28) in independent schools in British Columbia. If a funded school pupil-teacher ratio of 14.85 is applied to the entire independent school population, there are an estimated 2,384 teachers overall. Application of a public school PTR of 17.71 gives an estimated teacher count of 1,999. If a conservative base of 1,999 teachers is taken, a growth rate of four percent (the approximate growth rate over the past ten years) used, and the same loss rate applied as for the public school teaching force (8.88%), then the figures shown in Table 33 are the result. The extent to which a four percent growth rate can be maintained is, of course, debatable.

However, even assuming no growth at all, replacement teachers would still be required at an estimated 178 (using 1,999 teachers as a base) to 212 (using 2,384 teachers as a base) per year—a total of 1,780 to 2,120 by 1997-98.

Table 33. Number of Additional Independent School Teachers Required to Maintain an Assumed Pupil-Teacher Ratio of 17.71 Given Projected Increases in Enrolment 1988-89 to 1996-97

Year	*New Positions*	*Replacements*	*Total*	*Aggregate*
1988-89	80	178	258	258
1989-90	83	185	268	526
1990-91	86	192	278	804
1991-92	90	200	290	1,094
1992-93	94	208	302	1,396
1993-94	97	216	313	1,709
1994-95	101	225	326	2,035
1995-96	105	234	339	2,374
1996-97	109	243	352	2,726
1997-98	114	253	367	3,093

5.G Summary

Independent school teachers (at least those for whom reliable data are available) appear to be less academically qualified, less certificated, and less experienced than their public school counterparts. Independent school pupil-teacher ratios average about three pupils per teacher less that for the public school system. Where public school enrolments have dropped by about ten percent over the past ten years independent school enrolments have climbed by about fifty percent. If no growth in independent school enrolment is assumed but the same teacher loss rate as in public schools is applied, then an estimated 1,780 to 2,120 replacement teachers will be required over the next ten years. An assumed enrolment growth rate of four percent coupled with the public school loss rate implies a total of 3,093 additional and replacement teachers.

1. Elementary and Secondary School Enrolment, 1984-85
Elementary and Secondary School Enrolment, 1985-86
Advance Statistics of Education, 1987-88

6. The Basis for Comment

6.A Overview

The next sections of this report deal with some major issues with respect to the teaching force in the schools of British Columbia. These issues were identified as the most vivid in the minds and hearts of British Columbians through an extensive analysis of the 2099 briefs received from the public and from special interest groups.

About forty percent (811 out of 2099) of the briefs contained specific comments on a broad range of topics. The thirteen most prominent of those topics are shown in Table 34, along with the sources of the comments. Although parents submitted the largest number (239) of briefs with comments pertaining to on-site personnel, teachers were not far behind (231) and made more comments in this area (438) than any other group. All groups considered, by far the greatest number of references (298) were in regard to the issue of teacher professional development. Comments concerning job descriptions/working conditions (216) and teacher certification (199) were also in abundance.

TABLE 34. Number and Nature of On-Site Personnel Topics Addressed by Different Interest Groups

Topic / *Interest Group*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*	*12*	*13*	*Total*
Ministry/Government n = 3					1		1						3	5
School Boards/Trustees n = 60	5	3	2	24	3	2	2	8	11	4		37	11	112
District Administrators n = 28		2	1	6	2		1	4	8	8		17	7	56
Principals/Vice-principals n = 24	2	6		2		1	1	3	2	8		11	9	45
Teachers n = 231	34	52	1	64	18	1	20	13	41	17	1	97	79	438
Parents n = 239	16	12	5	36	62	4	17	15	36	56	10	66	54	389
Public n = 207	16	8		66	32	3	12	10	25	33	2	65	50	322
Students n = 19			1	1		4	2	2	2	5		5	3	25
Total n = 811	73	83	10	199	118	15	56	55	125	131	13	298	216	1392

Legend:
1 = Teacher Compensation
2 = Teacher Expectations
3 = Teacher Profiles
4 = Teacher Certification
5 = Teachers' Impact
6 = Teacher Competence
7 = Teacher Professionalism
8 = Teacher Recruitment
9 = Supply and Demand
10 = Performance Appraisal
11 = Selection of Teachers
12 = Professional Development
13 = Job Description

Following the identification of major topics of concern through the analysis of briefs, it was necessary to deal with the multiple and often contradictory perspectives which are often held with respect to these issues. For example, there is general agreement in the briefs and in the professional literature that teachers should receive certification only after they have demonstrated competence. In addition, certificated teachers should be expected to maintain competence. Problems, however, lie in the definition of what constitutes competence, in establishing who should define competence, and in devising acceptable mechanisms for monitoring competence. In order to evaluate the various forms of argument about this issue (and many others) it was necessary to examine the arguments in the context of the reality of the school system in British Columbia while drawing on relevant experiences with different practices elsewhere. In order to obtain pertinent data about the present context, questionnaires were sent to four groups: general university students about to graduate, university students about to graduate in teacher education programs, beginning teachers, and practicing teachers (i.e. with more than one year of experience) in public and independent schools. The process is outlined below.

6.B Data Collection

Questionnaires for university students were sent to all education students who were eligible to graduate in the spring of 1988 and to a random sample of students eligible to graduate from other faculties. The sample size for the general (non-education) students was determined for each university in proportion to the number of education students. Questionnaires were mailed to 2310 students' homes using labels obtained from university registrars. Students were asked to complete the questionnaire, seal it in the stamped return envelope provided, and mail it to the Educational Measurement Research Group at the University of British Columbia. A total of 1170 questionnaires were returned, a response rate of about fifty percent (see Table 35 for response rates).

For public school teachers, questionnaires were sent to all school districts in British Columbia in sufficient numbers for all beginning teachers and ten percent of the practicing teachers. Superintendents were asked to distribute the Beginning Teacher Questionnaires to all beginning teachers and to randomly select (either through the board office or through individual schools) ten percent of the practicing teachers. Each teacher was asked to seal the completed questionnaire in the envelope provided and return it to the board office. A total of 4352 questionnaires were distributed and 2457 (56%) were returned. Three of the 75 school districts were unable or unwilling to participate.

Independent schools were divided into four categories on the basis of pupil population and a proportional number of schools was selected within each size category. A total of 403 Practicing Teacher Questionnaires were mailed to school principals for random distribution to teachers. Teachers were asked to complete the questionnaire, seal it in the stamped return envelope provided, and mail it to the Educational Measurement Research Group at the University of British Columbia. A total of 206 questionnaires were returned, a response rate of about fifty-one percent.

TABLE 35. Summary of Questionnaire Distribution and Rates of Return

	Questionnaires Distributed	*Questionnaires Returned*	*Rate of Return*
School Districts			
Beginning Teachers	1130	612	54%
Practicing Teachers	3222	1845	57%
Independent Schools			
Practicing Teachers	403	206	51%
University Students			
Education Students	1110	558	50%
General Students	1200	612	51%

7. The Preparation and Professional Development of Teachers

During the last twenty years, and particularly in the last decade, wide-spread attention has been focused on teacher preparation, teacher effectiveness, and teacher professionalism. Much of that attention has been in the form of published research. Table 36 provides a summary of major documents which have particular relevance for this report. The relevance of the British and American studies lies more in the conceptual domain than in the area of direct application. The major reason for this lack of direct application is the wide diversity of teacher preparation programs in Britain and the United States. In the United States, for example, there are about 1400 teacher education institutions, many of which are small and which often cater to very specific segments of society. The problems of governance and maintenance of standards in such a situation are enormous. In Canada, however, virtually all teacher education takes place at a small number of major universities. Programs are subject to the scrutiny of university senates, faculty undergo rather strenuous peer evaluation, and students are admitted to programs in open competition with other students.

Despite the structural differences between the Canadian scene and other jurisdictions with respect to teacher preparation, it is possible to identify four basic characteristics common to all of the studies reported in Table 36. First, all of the studies focus on schools and the teachers who work in them. With one exception, part of that focus is concerned with teacher preservice education.

Table 36. Areas of Recommendations Made in Major Reports of Teacher Education

Report	*Origin*	*Emphasis*	*Areas of Recommendation*				
			Substance	*Preservice*	*Induction*	*Inservice*	*Schooling*
James Report (1972)	U.K.	Inservice	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Holmes Group (1986)	U.S.A	Shift T.Ed. to graduate school	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Carnegie Reform (1986)	U.S.A.	Shift T.Ed to graduate school	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
National Commiss'n (1985)	U.S.A.	General	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
AACTE (1983)	U.S.A.	General	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Howson, Corrigan, Deremark (1985)	U.S.A.	Professionalism	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Hord, O'Neal, Smith (1984)	U.S.A	The Continuum	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Partly
Shulman (1986)	U.S.A.	Knowledge	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
Howsom (1982)	U.S.A	Future	Partly	Yes	No	No	Yes
Joyce, Clift (1984)	U.S.A.	Reform	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
McGregor (1978)	Canada	Five-year degree	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Smitheram et al. (1971)	Canada	Teacher selective professional	as	Yes	Yes	No	NoNo
Anderson et al. (1982)	Canada Alberta	Collaboration	Yes	Yes	Partly	Partly	Partly
Fullan, Connely (1987)	Canada Ontario	Improve schools as workplaces	Partly	Yes	Yes	Min.	Yes
Channon (1971)	Canada CTF	Implementation	Yes	No	No	No	No

The Fullan report, for example, devotes its first recommendation to the creation of schools for professionals. With respect to schools and teachers, two major American studies (Holmes and Carnegie) propose dramatic changes in schools as workplaces and suggest the creation of career ladders for teachers. The other reports deal with similar major issues and a careful reading reveals that there is a general awareness by the researchers that little can be accomplished to improve education and teacher education if schools themselves do not change.

The second shared characteristic is an emphasis on far-reaching collaboration among schools, universities, and other stakeholders in teacher preparation programs. Although it is generally recognized that faculties of education constitute the central element in the provision of preservice training, it is apparent in these studies that the roles of other stakeholders are viewed as requiring substantial strengthening.

The third shared characteristic is an emphasis on the concept that the initial preparation of teachers must be closely linked not only to a period of induction but also to a continuing program of life-long professional development.

Finally, the fourth common characteristic of the reports outlined in Table 36 concerns the content and nature of teacher education programs. Virtually all of the reports are silent with respect to these issues. It appears that the lack of agreement on the traits and skills required for effective teaching has been sufficient to dissuade researchers from commenting at any length on these considerations. The importance of preparation programs is, however, too great to be ignored. Accordingly, the next part of this report describes the present situation with respect to teacher preparation programs in British Columbia and offers some suggestions for future directions.

7.A Teacher Education in British Columbia—Current Status

All three public universities in the province of British Columbia offer teacher certification programs through their respective Faculties of Education. Preparation for both elementary and secondary teaching is provided through a variety of options. Each university's options for each level are outlined below.

7.B Preparation for Teaching in Secondary Schools

All three universities in British Columbia presently require completion of a professional year of training and possession of a baccalaureate degree with one teachable major subject area or two teachable minor subject areas. Students satisfying these requirements are deemed qualified to receive a *Professional Certificate*.

At *Simon Fraser University*, students may enter the professional year program on completion of either a Bachelor's degree or a minimum of 106 credits. Students entering without the degree must complete degree requirements during the on-campus semester of the three-semester Professional Development Program. This semester is the second semester for students entering the program in January, and the third semester for students entering in September. For all students, the first semester comprises a program of study designed to integrate theory and practice through alternating blocks of classroom teaching with workshops and instruction on campus. For January (September) entrants, the second (third) semester is the on-campus semester devoted to ensuring that professional, academic, and certification requirements are satisfied. The remaining semester (third for January entrants, second for September entrants) is spent in schools. During this semester, the student is expected to assume a large measure of responsibility for student learning activities and to participate in a wide range of teaching and supervisory activities.

At the *University of Victoria*, there are two programs which qualify students for certification as secondary school teachers. The first program is a five-year program with an entry requirement of completion of one year of university (or equivalent). Classroom experience is a component in each of the last three years of the program—two weeks in each of years three and four, and a more extensive exposure in the fifth (professional) year. Requirements for practical experience in the professional year may be satisfied by one of three options—two six-week practica, a six-month internship, or a ten-month (full school year) internship.

The second program through which secondary school teaching certification may be obtained is a two-year program designed for students possessing a baccalaureate degree prior to entry. Completion of the first year of the program satisfies certification requirements. Completion of the second year qualifies a student for the degree of Bachelor of Education. The options for satisfying the practical experience requirement are the same as those for five-year program students.

At the *University of British Columbia*, students possessing a baccalaureate degree may enter a two-year professional development program. Successful completion of twelve months (three semesters) of study satisfies certification requirements and the university allows for exit from the program at that time. Completion of one additional term satisfies requirements for the Bachelor of Education degree. Practical experience is a component of the program during the first two terms—weekly half-day school visits and a two-week practicum during the first term, and a thirteen-week practicum (January to April) in the second term.

7.C Preparation for Teaching in Elementary Schools

At *Simon Fraser University*, the program for training elementary school teachers parallels the secondary school program—a semester of integrated theory and practice, a semester of on-campus work, and a semester of full-time teaching. Simon Fraser will forward names to the College of Teachers for certification after successful completion of a minimum of two years of academic study (college or university) and a calendar year in the Professional Development Program. Students who satisfy these requirements are therefore eligible for a *Standard Certificate* rather than the *Professional Certificate* awarded after completion of the Professional Development Program and an undergraduate degree. The other two universities require four years of academic study and completion of a professional program before names are forwarded for certification.

At the *University of Victoria*, the program options available to individuals interested in elementary school teaching are the same as those available to students seeking secondary school qualifications. The five-year program incorporates school experience into the first, third, and fourth years—two weeks in each of the first and third years, and two six-week practica in the fourth year. Students also have the opportunity to be more intensively involved in teaching and school life through participation in the six-month or full-year internship programs. In the two-year professional program for holders of baccalaureate degrees, a two-week practicum is a requirement in the first year. Two six-week practica are built into the second year of the program and students again have internship options as described above.

The *University of British Columbia* has recently revised its elementary teacher training programs. Students are now required to have completed three years of academic study prior to entry into the professional development program. In the first year of the two-year program, students spend one half-day per week observing in classrooms and working as mentors and tutors with small groups of children. During the second term, the weekly half-day visits continue and are supplemented with a two-week practicum. In the third term, students are placed in schools for thirteen consecutive weeks, during the last five of which they accept full teaching responsibility.

A review of the various programs available at the three universities suggests a growing emphasis on the need for breadth and depth of knowledge as pre-requisites for entry into professional development programs. There is evidence also of an emphasis on extensive classroom experience and exposure to school life as major factors influencing the development of prospective teachers.

7.D Public and Professional Perspectives

If 'teacher education' is taken more generally to encompass, or at least have major implications for, teacher recruitment, competence, professional development, and certification, then teacher education was a prime focus for many of the comments contained in the briefs submitted to the Commission. Approximately forty percent of the 1392 comments directly pertinent to on-site personnel addressed issues which might reasonably be viewed under teacher education. Although many comments were positive and supportive, the need to select qualified individuals to be trained as teachers was stressed repeatedly by parents and the general public. It is clear that meeting this need will have important ramifications for the screening methods employed in teacher education programs and, indeed, for the composition of these programs. It is instructive to examine the views of the respondents to the questionnaires with respect to the quality of their own teacher preparation programs.

Teachers in British Columbia hold a relatively critical perspective on their own teacher education. Both experienced

and beginning teachers alike hold views which can best be described as lukewarm, and students currently in education programs are only slightly more positive. For example, only about forty percent of the experienced teachers, fifty percent of the beginning teachers, and fifty-five percent of the education students agreed that their education program was thought-provoking. Similar percentages agreed that their program was intellectually challenging. Only forty-three percent of the education students agreed that their courses in curriculum and teaching methods were appropriate, and only two out of three beginning teachers agreed that their teacher education program had instilled confidence in their ability to teach (yet almost 97% were confident in their ability to teach).

Given the views held by individuals who have been through teacher education programs, it is perhaps no surprise that parents and the public have raised concerns about teacher quality. What might be seen as more surprising, however, is the tone in which those concerns are expressed. Calls for improvement in teacher quality (and by implication, in teacher education) are generally mild and lack the shrill panic often characterizing the last five years of public debates on educational quality in the United States. The following parental comment is illustrative:

> *"I recommend a process to ensure that teacher recruitment, training, qualification, remuneration, promotion and ongoing professional development policies are effective in insuring a uniformly high and continuing standard of professional performance, initiative, and motivation."*

Concerns about the quality of teacher education programs often centre on screening procedures and it is often stated that entrants into teacher education programs are less qualified academically and less able than students entering other faculties. In general, it appears that these comments are misdirected. At the University of Calgary, for example, a recent study examining students taking a common first year of academic studies found no differences between students who subsequently entered teacher education programs and students who stayed in other faculties (Wideen and Holborn, 1986).

The findings in the University of Calgary study are supported by the analysis of responses to the questionnaires. Students in education programs report having taken essentially the same amount of coursework in secondary school academic subjects as general university students (see Table 37). For example, sixty percent of the education students took four or more years of science compared to sixty-five percent of the general students. In addition, education students reported somewhat higher university entrance grades than did the general education students. About forty-nine percent of the prospective teachers reported secondary grade averages of eighty percent or more, compared to forty-four percent of the general students. The old saw that 'those who can, do; those who can't, teach' appears to be without foundation.

Table 37. Average Number of Years of Study in Secondary School Academic Subjects for Education Students and General University Students

Subject	*General University Students*	*Education Students*
English	3.7	3.7
Natural Sciences	3.4	3.3
History/Social Studies	3.4	3.4
Mathematics	3.6	3.3
Languages	3.1	3.1

Even though Table 37 shows a generally favorable comparison between the two types of students, it should be noted that a large group of students overall are entering university without qualifications which would enable them to undertake study in academic majors which require the completion of four or more years in a corresponding secondary school academic subject.

With respect to public perceptions of teacher competence, the analysis of briefs shows generally favorable views—teachers are seen as competent individuals and dedicated professionals. Calls for improvement tend to address specific, not general, concerns. Typical of that specificity is the following comment:

> *"Nowhere else does there appear to be so weak an area in the entire education system as the preservice training of teachers for learners with special needs."*

Usually, such comments reflect the concerns of particular interest groups; however, that does not mean that they are to be dismissed lightly. When the array of suggestions for the improvement of teacher qualifications is surveyed, it becomes clear that there is a need for an broad examination of the central issues surrounding teacher education. Some of those central issues are addressed in the next sections of this report.

7.E Calls for Better Qualified Teachers

In many ways, the general public's comments on teacher education, whether direct or indirect, whether specific or general, amount to a plea for 'better qualified' teachers, a plea which may seem inconsistent with the statement that there is a relatively high level of general public satisfaction with respect to teacher quality. It should be recognized, however, that there is nothing intrinsically contradictory about seeking to improve conditions in a societal institution which is so critical to the future of the province's citizens. Where contradiction is more likely to be found is in the various interpretations of the term 'better qualified'. For some individuals, 'better qualified' means more educated (in a formal sense) and/or more knowledgeable. Laymen and professionals alike apparently realize that in the face of a knowledge explosion, and in a society confronted with increasingly complex social, economic, scientific, and ethical questions, teachers must be highly educated and knowledgeable if they are to adequately prepare the next generation for the formidable challenges ahead.

For some people, 'better qualified' means greater competence in a specific curricular area or specialty field. The analysis of the briefs revealed many references to the need for more elementary school teachers with a background in computer technology, for more teachers with expertise in dealing with children hampered by learning disabilities, for more specialists in physical education, the fine arts, French, English-as-a-Second-Language, counselling, and other distinct areas.

A third interpretation of 'better qualified' reflects a concern for classroom management and student control procedures. A number of briefs, including teacher-submitted briefs, were quite specific in stating the need for teachers to have more coursework in discipline and classroom management.

Finally, for a select few individuals, 'better qualified' seems to mean that the teacher should possess the wherewithal to deal with a particular parent's child, no matter how reasonable or unreasonable such an expectation might be.

7.F Ensuring the Availability of Quality Teachers

Given the various interpretations placed on 'better qualified', it is manifestly impossible that mechanisms for ensuring better qualified teachers can be defined in ways which are agreeable to all parties. It is not the intent of this report to specify the components of teacher preparation programs. Specification of that order is the domain of the profession and the universities. That said, it is still within the jurisdiction of this report to state, in general terms, the requisites for the maintenance and improvement of teacher quality. The four conditions which follow are essential requirements in that regard.

1. Highly competent individuals must be identified, recruited, and selected into teacher education programs.

2. Prospective teachers must be provided with first-rate programs of academic and professional studies.

3. Beginning teachers must be placed in work environments which are particularly supportive of their unique professional needs.

4. Practicing teachers must be provided structures within which continued academic and professional development are supported.

The importance of these four conditions cannot be overemphasized. Only if all four are satisfied can British Columbia expect to recruit and keep quality teachers. The next three sections of this report discuss these requirements at greater length.

7.G The Recruitment, Selection, and Retention of Quality Teachers

7.G.1 Recruitment

In order to recruit and select highly competent individuals into teacher education programs, it is necessary to be able to specify what constitutes a 'highly competent' individual. Clearly, much of the successful teacher's ability stems from natural aptitude as well as from good schooling. In the introduction to this report, it was pointed out that there is less-than-complete agreement on the traits which lead an individual to quality performance in the classroom. The portrait of 'Andy Smith' describes a person who is genuinely fond of children, confident, relatively flexible, competent in given subject areas, and able to communicate with clarity. By themselves, these qualities do not guarantee that their possessor will become an excellent teacher. However, it is difficult to imagine an excellent teacher who does not possess these attributes. They must truly be considered minimal prerequisites for entry into a teacher preparation program.

The attraction of competent, confident, flexible, communicative individuals who love to work with young people is surely a major challenge for institutions of teacher education. This difficulty notwithstanding, however, the need for deliberate action is urgent. Elsewhere in this report, a projected teacher shortage in the not-too-distant future has been documented. Even with liberal assumptions regarding the availability of presently unemployed teachers, there is likely only a large enough pool of available teachers to deal with anticipated increases in demand until about the 1990-91 school year. From then on, given no change in the numbers of students entering the education programs of British Columbia's universities, an annual shortage of about 2400 to 2500 teachers is expected in the public school system. During the next ten years, almost 30,000 new teachers are projected to be needed in public school classrooms—a number which represents 105% of the total 1986-87 teaching force. Projections for the province's independent schools indicate the need for about 2100 replacement teachers, even on the assumption that there will be no growth in independent school enrolments.

There have, of course, been recurrent shortages of qualified teachers throughout the history of British Columbia and other Canadian provinces. In the past, shortages have usually been addressed by out-of-province and out-of-country recruitment, issuance of emergency teaching certificates, and reduction (or actual elimination) of standards for certification and entry into teaching. It was pointed out earlier that there is a very real possibility that traditional sources of out-of-province teachers might no longer yield the numbers of recruits that earlier programs yielded—given the high probability that these areas will themselves be experiencing teacher shortages and given substantial salary differences in favor of other provinces in Canada.

With respect to the other traditional methods of dealing with teacher shortages, it is hard to see how decreasing entry standards or certification requirements can do anything other than contribute to a 'dumbing down' of the profession. Reliance on those practices in the past may well have helped sustain a public perception that 'anyone can teach'—a perception which is difficult to change and which not only serves to erode the status and prestige of teaching but which also lessens the attractiveness of teaching as a professional career option. The position held in this report is that any reduction in the requirements for entry into teaching would serve only to further undermine public confidence in the school system. It is unimaginable that what has been common practice in the past would, if applied to other professional groups in times of shortage, be acceptable to either the professional body or the public. Compromising standards for entry into teaching, therefore, is not a desirable option for increasing teacher supply.

A second option, one which reduces demand rather than increases supply, is retrenchment of financial support for the educational enterprise. Funding reductions typically translate at some point into increased class sizes and pupil-teacher-ratios (PTRs). The reverse approach is to increase the PTR, a move which reduces the need for teachers and which therefore results in lower educational costs. An upward adjustment of 0.10 in the provincial PTR, for example, translates into the loss of 160 teaching positions.

Increasing the provincial PTR is likely to have extremely undesirable consequences. A reduced number of teaching positions contributes to miss-assignment of teachers to areas outside their subject field specialties. Miss-assignment of this nature has been all too often evident in the last decade, as large numbers of teaching positions have disappeared due to declining enrolments and funding cutbacks. In addition, increased class sizes have negative ramifications not only for teacher working conditions but also for student learning conditions. Under present conditions, seven out of ten teachers responding to the practicing teacher questionnaire indicated that their job was (very) stressful and one-third of the respondents identified class size reduction as the most needed change in the conditions of their employment. Lest it be thought that teachers are merely self-serving opportunists seeking a 'softer touch', it should be noted that the analysis of public and parental briefs supported teachers' perceptions in this regard.

As a final comment on the option of increasing the provincial PTR as a means of reducing the demand for teachers, it should be understood that moves of this nature serve to decrease the attractiveness of teaching as a career, thereby providing an additional obstacle to recruitment. University and pre-university students will obviously consider not only employment prospects and salaries in deciding career choices, but also working conditions and incentive structures. The spectre of continually increasing class sizes, accompanied by inadequate support services and the possibility of assignment outside one's prime area of expertise, is enough to persuade many potential teachers to pursue other careers.

The position taken in this report is that the public interest is best served not by compromising standards for entry into teaching or by making classroom life more stressful than it already is. Rather, entry standards need raising, and classroom life needs to be made more attractive. Obviously, raising standards in the face of expected shortages poses some risk. Increasing entry requirements is an action usually taken in times of teacher surplus. Balancing the possibility that increased standards will turn potential teachers away from education programs (and thereby exacerbate a shortage situation) is the likelihood that attractiveness of teaching as a career is largely determined by the probability of employment on completion of the education program. For example, almost one-half of the general university students indicated that lack of employment opportunities was a reason for deciding not to pursue teaching as a career. Lack of employment opportunities was therefore the most frequently given reason for opting for a non-teaching career.

In order for increased standards and increased teacher supply to both occur, it is obvious that an array of collaborative initiatives is required in three major areas—the establishment of rigorous standards for entry into teaching (and for continuation in the profession), the pursuit of an aggressive recruitment campaign designed to attract larger numbers of young people of substantial intellectual accomplishment and personal commitment, and the reformulation of the professional environment of teachers. These initiatives require that the provincial government immediately give the three universities the mandate and the means to develop a coordinated provincial capacity to provide the necessary numbers and kinds of teachers needed through the next decade. The development of a coordinated provincial capacity means that a tri-university committee needs to be established in cooperation with the other major stakeholders in provincial education—the British Columbia Teachers' Federation, the British Columbia School Trustees' Association, the College of Teachers, the Association of British Columbia School Superintendents, and the Ministry of Education. The development of both long-term and short-term plans for meeting the anticipated demand for new teachers would be an immediate priority for such a committee.

Even with coordinated (and appropriately funded) initiatives to increase the numbers of teachers available in the future, it should not be taken for granted that students will in fact flock to education programs in the required numbers. Some general reasons for the non-attractiveness of teaching as a career have been given earlier. The questionnaire responses of general university students provide three more substantial reasons why teaching is not an attractive option for them under present conditions. First, there is a perceived lack of professional advancement opportunities (cited by almost two-fifths of the respondents). Second, salaries are seen as inadequate by about one-quarter of the students. Third, job security is viewed as inadequate by just over one-fifth of the students. These responses suggest that recruitment in sufficient numbers might prove to be extremely difficult without salary increases, more possibilities for profes-

sional advancement, and a more secure and stable atmosphere in the profession. The responsibility for addressing these issues lies with government, as does the responsibility for supporting the tri-university committee discussed earlier. One of the early important tasks of such a committee should be the development of specific recruitment plans (perhaps including the establishment of specific scholarships or other means of student financial support).

7.G.2 Selection

Professions acquire their status through a variety of means: entry barriers, difficulty of preparation, possession of recognizable special skills, and behaviors designed to mark the distinction between members and non-members of the profession. Since there is a large number of teachers relative to the number of medical doctors, for instance, teaching is a much less 'exclusive' profession than medicine. Even so, if teaching is to be considered a profession, and if talented individuals are sought for entry into teacher education programs, screening and selection methods are required. There are, however, some obvious problems attached to the development of adequate and efficient screening procedures. First, there is the relatively large number of available positions to be filled in the program. The need to select entrants from four or five applicants for each available space virtually precludes the use of labor intensive screening mechanisms such as personal interviews. Second, the time problem aside, there still exists more doubt among professionals than among the public with respect to the incremental value of extensive interviews. As a result, admissions committees tend to rely exclusively on written records of scholarship, interest, and personality. Unfortunately, there is little empirical evidence with respect to the reliability and validity of such records. As Schalock noted recently, 'The sad truth seems to be ... that we are essentially without any reliable predictors of who will or will not be good teachers' (1988: 8). Experience seems to indicate that early practica are useful, both for the prospective teacher and for the teacher education institution, in terms of correcting obvious mismatches between the student's interests and abilities and the requirements of being a teacher.

Regardless of the nature of selection procedures used to determine the adequacy of candidates for teacher education programs, errors in selection will occur, and candidates who are somewhat less than ideal will be allowed entry. Arguably, though, these errors are diminished in significance if there is a consistent cadre of high quality applicants. The key to raising the quality of entrants into teacher education programs lies in the creation of such a cadre. High quality applicants can only be attracted, however, if teaching moves from a 'job' whose status is widely held in question to a profession widely viewed as meritorious. Steps to improve professional status can only be effective in a climate where government actively and publicly supports teaching as a profession of great importance for the future of this province—economically as well as socially and culturally. Statements by public officials of the type made by Thomas Kean, Governor of the State of New Jersey, would do much to improve teacher status: 'Governors should lead the teacher recruitment efforts in their states *personally*, through public endorsements of the importance and benefits of teaching' (1986: 207). It should be noted that teachers in British Columbia view the provincial government as non-supportive in the extreme—only three percent of the respondents to the practicing teacher questionnaire stated that they were happy with the extent of government support in this province. In contrast, however, teachers did feel that professional status was awarded them by employers, parents, and students, and that these groups supported their efforts. The general public, on the other hand, was viewed as supportive only by about thirty percent of the respondents. The message here is perhaps that those most knowledgeable about education and about the difficulties, frustrations, and stress faced by classroom teachers are most supportive. If that be true, it is incumbent on the Ministry of Education, in cooperation with the major educational stakeholders, to initiate and maintain a program designed to raise the status of teaching as a career. Such a program should incorporate not only a public education campaign which focuses on teaching as an honorable profession, but also an initiative aimed at showing pre-university students the desirability of pursuing a teaching career. A desirable additional component would be the conduct,at least triennially, of scientific opinion polls to determine the public's level of satisfaction with the educational system. Such polls would, of necessity, be undertaken by an independent agency at the initiation of the Ministry of Education and in consultation with the other major shareholders, with wide dissemination of the results.

7.G.3 Retention

About three-quarters of the teachers responding to the practicing teacher questionnaire indicated that they were more

or less satisfied with being a teacher. When asked whether they would choose to be teachers again, however, only a quarter (25.5%) indicated that they definitely would. Another twenty-seven percent though it probable that they would choose the same profession again. On the other hand, *a staggering twenty-seven percent said that they probably or definitely would choose another occupation*. An additional twenty-one percent considered it to be a toss-up. The indications are, therefore, that the teaching profession in British Columbia has the potential to be abandoned by almost one-half of its members. A profession where that large a proportion of its practitioners would likely consider other occupations if given the opportunity is not a stable profession. This situation is, perhaps, to be expected given the low esteem in which teaching is held is certain quarters, the demanding and stressful nature of the teacher's work environment, the inadequacy of support services, the continual increase in demands placed upon the system in general and on classroom teachers in particular, the burden of increasing class sizes, and the insufficiency of training for specialized functions. In the briefs submitted to the Commission, these factors were identified as concerns not only by individual teachers and teacher associations, but also by parents and, indeed, by members of the general public. In open-ended responses on the practicing teacher questionnaire, one-third of the respondents wrote that if they were able to change their work environment they would reduce class sizes. About three teachers in ten called for more support services (aides, library, learning disability, counselling), twenty-nine percent opted for more time for preparation and planning, and a quarter were concerned about improving their professional status.

Since the foregoing suggestions for change were spontaneously generated in response to open-ended questions, they imply a remarkable cohesion among teachers regarding the factors which, in their opinion, would render a teacher's life more attractive. Data from the structured part of the questionnaire support these factors as of prime concern. For example, two out of three teachers indicated that they were not satisfied with the amount of time available for preparation.

Given the critical need to make teaching more attractive, and given a quite clear identification by teachers of factors which would help satisfy that need, funding needs to be made available to school boards that will allow them to respond locally to situations justifying smaller class sizes without penalizing other classrooms in the district. In addition, where situations warrant, special government funding to provide exceptional support for classroom teachers is needed. Further, sufficient funding needs to be provided to enable teachers to have increased preparation time without sacrificing other classroom requirements.

7.H Initial Teacher Preparation: Academic and Professional Studies

In the professional literature, there is abundant evidence of widespread agreement that the formation of a teacher requires a program which emphasizes both academic study and the development of professional skills. A weakening in the first component leads to teachers who may be technically competent but suspect in their ability to guide the intellectual growth of their pupils. Neglect of professional training results in individuals who through unsupervised trial and error must acquire those practical skills needed to be effective in what is a very complex situation. All too often, these individuals fail in such on-the-job skill acquisition. It is somewhat alarming, especially since it may well reflect what a large portion of the public also think, that two out three general university students responded that they could succeed as teachers without any special preparation. Among education students, only one in eight agreed with that position, the same proportion as among beginning teachers. About one practicing teacher in seven also agreed that no special preparation was necessary. These differences between those who are knowledgeable and those who have no actual knowledge of the requirements of teaching underline the need for the type of information program suggested earlier.

It is well-established that there are few reliable indications that a teacher's success in a classroom is related either to university grades or to the quantity of academic work taken. The professional literature tends to support the position that this lack of reliable indicators reflects problems of measurement and of conducting research in a complex area. Virtually all reports on renewal of teacher education recommend that teachers possess at least a bachelor's degree as a minimum pre-requisite of employment. That position was supported earlier in this report. In view of the apparent lack of correlation between success in university and success in the classroom, it is worthwhile at this point to give the main reasons why a baccalaureate is viewed here as a major qualification.

The thrust of the argument in favor of requiring a baccalaureate as the academic minimum for entry into teaching comes from the expectation that the teacher has major responsibilities for the intellectual, social, aesthetic, and cultural development of children. The more intelligent and educated the teacher, the greater the likelihood that he or she will possess the academic, social, aesthetic, and cultural perspectives required for providing pupils with intellectual challenge, directing their inquiries, and explaining their world in physical, social, historic, economic, political, philosophical, and cultural terms. These aspects of a teacher's work are all the more vital as this province becomes increasingly multicultural and diverse. Schools have the awesome responsibility of preparing the next generation for life in the twenty-first century. Without increased understanding, cooperation, tolerance, and awareness of various cultural backgrounds, the meeting of that responsibility appears extremely unlikely. One cannot decry the illiteracy, intolerance, and lack of cultural awareness of youth and at the same time permit individuals to enter teaching with a level of education which would be seen as totally inadequate in a host of occupations far less crucial to the survival of our culture. Teachers should be required to possess a bachelor's degree earned in a program of studies which constitutes a broad introduction to the liberal arts and the sciences.

The requirement that teachers possess the sort of baccalaureate described above is not sufficient in itself to produce capable teachers. Familiarity with the arts and sciences needs to be buttressed by a professional program designed to instill a large body of professional knowledge and skills. Teachers, and, to a lesser extent, the public, have expressed very specific views regarding the nature of a desirable teacher education program. The view expressed in this report is that the specifics of such a program are best developed by the universities in consultation with the appropriate major stakeholders. That said, it is appropriate here to offer some general observations concerning professional preparation programs.

First, teacher education programs must be at least five years in length. The demand that teachers be generally well-educated and specially trained in one or more academic disciplines, plus the requirement that they master professional knowledge and skills ranging from subjects in early childhood education, to topics in technology, to details of instructional methodologies precludes a shorter program. In fact, in a five-year program, it is reasonable to expect no more than the acquisition of fairly basic skills and knowledge.

Second, it is abundantly clear that practical experience in the classroom must form a substantial part of the professional program. More than ninety percent of education students and beginning teachers alike declared that their practica were valuable. Indeed, practica were seen as the most important elements of their preparation programs. At present, all three universities in British Columbia offer programs which include the option of extended practica. Given the importance attached to the extended practicum by present and recent students, plus the fact that the largest number of teacher briefs called for more weight on practical experience, the option should be replaced with a mandatory extended practicum for all students.

7.1 The First-Year Teacher and the Induction Process

First-year teachers typically feel prepared for classroom life. Almost all of the education students responding to the questionnaire indicated that they felt confident in their ability to teach. This confidence is usually accompanied by eagerness, idealism, and positive anticipation (with perhaps some trepidation) of good experiences in the year ahead. Unfortunately, these attributes and expectations may prove to be inadequate if novice teachers are placed in situations where there is insufficient response to their professional needs, needs which are much greater than those of the experienced and expert teacher.

Beginning teachers are often faced with unreasonable teaching assignments (excessive numbers of preparations, disruptive classes, courses outside their area of immediate expertise, heavy extra-curricular demands, and so on). In addition, they may lack ready access to instant and expert advice on the many problems they encounter during their first few years. In such circumstances, initial enthusiasm wanes, inadequate (and sometimes inappropriate) coping mechanisms are invented, and easy, manageable routines are substituted for more valid instructional practices. Odell expresses the result thus:

> *'Beginning teachers encountering these realities may experience a collapse of the ideals they formed about teaching*

> *during teacher training and leave the profession before they learn to cope with the day to day stresses all teachers inevitably and continually face.'*
> *(1987: 70)*

Odell does not exaggerate. Research shows that beginning teachers leave the profession in large numbers (Schlecty and Vance, 1983)—in the United States, approximately fifteen percent of first-year teachers abandon their profession. This abandonment represents a massive waste of human and financial resources. The results of the beginning teacher survey in British Columbia do not allow for the easy response that 'things are different here'. While only one percent of the beginning teachers indicated that they want to leave teaching as soon as possible, an additional twelve percent responded that they would leave the minute that something better became available. If these figures are not sufficient to cause alarm, a startling fifty-one percent of the respondents had not decided how long they wanted to stay in the profession. The research strongly suggests that part of the reason for this apparent lack of commitment to the profession is teacher misassignment. School administrators have a special (and admittedly managerially difficult) responsibility to ensure that the most challenging assignments go to veteran rather than novice teachers and that extra support is available for the beginning teacher during the first few critical years.

Besides misassignment, of course, there are other factors which serve to increase classroom stress and to make the task of the beginning teacher more difficult. On the questionnaire, beginning teachers identified five major sources of teacher stress and anxiety: class size (identified by 61%), poor student behavior (46%), limited equipment and supplies (24%), demands of special needs students (24%), and political problems (30%). All but the last of these factors seems amenable to remediation—perhaps not for the entire teaching force, but almost certainly for the beginning teacher. It may be that such remedial actions come in part at the cost of the more experienced teacher; however, established teachers should be more able to cope in that regard. It is imperative that beginning teachers not become disillusioned with the profession before they have had a reasonable chance to evaluate it fairly.

In order to ease the entry of the beginning teacher into the rigors of classroom life, induction programs are often suggested as a means of providing novitiates with the necessary support. Often, though 'induction programs' consist of a welcome speech by the superintendent of schools and the local teachers' association president and provide little if any on-site supportive mechanisms. Of the beginning teachers responding to the questionnaire, only 43% agreed that their initial entry into the profession reflected adequate teacher orientation and induction programs.

Successful induction programs will require the application of resources—both human and financial. The induction of beginning teachers will require the involvement of more experienced teachers—as mentors, counselors, and formative evaluators. Reduced teaching assignments for beginning teachers will cost money. Nonetheless, if more beginning teachers are to grow into full professional maturity, they require assistance. This assistance should minimally be in the form of a one-year induction program characterized by special support services and a reduced teaching assignment. Obviously, any reduction in the beginning teacher's salary would have a negative effect sufficient to outweigh any benefits of such an induction program and no reduction should be contemplated. As for the details of district induction programs, they should be district-developed in cooperation with other major educational stakeholders.

7.J The Teacher's Continued Education: Life-long Learning

The knowledge that individual teachers possess is among the most public knowledge in our society. As teachers mark assignments, create evaluations, and comment on pupils' papers, they continually expose the limits of their own education to pupils, parents, the public, and their own colleagues. Lacunae in knowledge, however trivial, are quickly taken as signs of incompetence regardless of the fact that teachers in general, and elementary teachers in particular, must be masters of so many domains.

Mastery in teaching, however, requires the continual accumulation of new knowledge and skills. Quality teaching can only be ensured through a requirement that teachers be life-long learners. That requirement or, less rigidly, that expectation, is only realistic if it is accompanied by concrete structures of support. Professional development is essential to the maintenance and growth of quality in teachers and teachers must be supported in professional development activities.

The importance of professional development and teacher growth is not lost on parents and the general public. Professional development is the issue identified as of most concern in the analysis of the briefs. A typical comment is:

> *'Teaching is an occupation which induces high levels of stress. For this reason alone, a sabbatical year, perhaps every five years, would be beneficial. But beyond this important health perspective, professional ability and standards would also be improved as many teachers would use sabbatical time to gain further qualifications and experience that will assist them to become better and more effective teachers.' (Parent group submission)*

Lest it be thought that sabbaticals would merely serve to give teachers extended vacations, it should be noted that a great many teachers presently give up much of their holiday time in continued professional development activities. For example, almost one teacher in five reported attending a university summer school last year—on their own time and, usually, at their own cost.

Continued professional development does not, however, necessarily mean a return to the university environment. Routes such as independent reading and study, district development initiatives, and distance education courses are other possibilities. Nonetheless, universities must make it possible for teachers to return for more formal study—not just in education courses, but also in more academic domains. Current university provisions and practices tend not to allow teachers to pursue further academic studies once they have obtained their baccalaureate degree. 'Further academic studies' means here study in the liberal arts and sciences, including study in a teacher's area of specialization, and the study of foundational subjects in education (such as educational history, philosophy, sociology). Present professional development for most teachers does not include post-baccalaureate work in either arts or sciences, even in the case of secondary school teachers. Instead, teachers wishing to pursue a graduate degree are usually obliged to take a master's degree in a faculty of education. The universities should address this issue and create master's degrees which allow students to combine studies in education with studies in the liberal arts and sciences. It must be possible for teachers who return for additional formal study to combine subject matter interests with increased mastery of instructional techniques. This latter topic warrants additional discussion.

7.J.1 Increased mastery of instructional technique

Increased mastery of instructional technique is the most common objective of current professional development. Work undertaken regularly by classroom teachers in this area includes the study of new materials, new approaches to teaching and classroom management, and new educational ideologies. It is regrettable that most of the in-service provided is entirely at the verbal level, with little or no opportunity for clinical, 'hands-on', experiences. In that sense, much of what presently passes for professional development is illustrative of the kind of teaching that good teachers would reject as incomplete and ineffective. There is a clear need for more time and more opportunity for teachers to see new techniques, investigate them sufficiently, and apply them appropriately. In addition, programs of professional development must not only provide opportunities for clinical professional development, but must also themselves be exemplars of good teaching.

The issue of increased (or, in fact, continuing) mastery was often raised in the briefs submitted by parents and the public. Often, these parties expressed a desire to see professional development a mandatory requirement for continued certification. While it is always possible to institute requirements of this nature, experience, information from teacher briefs, and questionnaire data serve to reinforce the position that teachers not only are genuinely interested in opportunities for growth but that they also often make considerable personal sacrifice to take advantages of opportunities for growth. The decision of whether or not continued certification should depend on involvement in professional development activities should be left to the profession itself. Within the context of a well-developed professional ethos which recognizes the absolute need for life-long learning, normal systems of evaluation should be sufficient to reward teachers who are life-long learners and censure those who do not keep current in their knowledge or professional skills.

It is clear that teachers see matters having directly to do with the business of their classroom as extremely important. When asked to identify their most important professional development needs, practicing teachers provide very specific direction (see Table 38) and four out of five teachers saw professional development as a priority. Only about half are satisfied with present opportunities.

Table 38. Percentage of Practicing Teachers Identifying Particular Professional Development Choices as Important

Choice	*Percent*
New Curriculum	61
Improving Teaching Design	49
Motivation	48
Classroom Management	35
Professional Issues	27
Special Needs Children	26
Retraining	20
Social Issues	20
Ethical Issues	10
Other	6

7.K The Evolution of Professional Perspective

Throughout this report, teachers have been categorized as either beginning or experienced. There are numerous categorization schemes whereby 'teachers' as a general category are broken into a number of identifiable groups. Categorizations which view teachers on a continuum of ability or quality, as opposed to on a distinction according to subject or grade taught, typically have categories like 'beginner' or 'novice' for new teachers, and 'expert' or 'master' for experienced teachers of the highest quality. Also typically, it is only the latter stages that teachers, now experts in their craft, become fully involved with professional issues not necessarily directly related to their daily classroom life. The healthy development of any profession requires that a broad segment of its practitioners not only support, but also participate in, the collective professional existence. In teaching, it is only when teachers themselves are deeply concerned with matters of professional development, are cognizant of the issues involved, and are committed to positive action, that genuine and steady improvement can take place. This position implies serious study of a historical, sociological, pedagogical, and philosophical nature on the part of all teachers. The results of the practicing teacher questionnaire show that only one teacher in four presently acknowledges the need to be occupied with 'professional issues' as part of further professional development activities (see Table 38).

In order for the teaching profession to develop an ethos in which comprehensive professional development becomes an unquestioned norm, the cooperation of all major stakeholders is required. As pointed out earlier, universities must make available programs of further study which combine studies in academic specialty areas with studies in education. The British Columbia Teachers' Federation must continue and enhance its leadership role in the development of rigorous programs of professional development aimed at the improvement of classroom instruction. Such programs should be developed in cooperation with the other major stakeholders. The government must provide adequate funding to enable school boards, in negotiation with teachers, to develop imaginative ways to make regular, extended periods of time available for professional development. The present system of the five so-called professional days (Pro-D days) warrants further comment.

The five Pro-D days presently provided through legislation are sadly lacking in imaginative use and in impact. Too often, those days are used for a series of unrelated workshops, for functions which are essentially administrative in nature, or for learning experiences not imbedded in a long-term program of professional growth. All parties concerned with genuine professional development need to consider ways and means both of making study leaves available to teachers and also of developing flexible arrangements for allowing teachers time to participate in relevant workshops and seminars.

Finally, the observation that opportunities for professional development vary widely across British Columbia is inescapable. In many communities in the Interior and in the North of this province, access to professional development programs is extremely limited and expensive. Since it is these areas which often have the greatest difficulty in attracting a stable teaching force in the first place, it is crucial that special measures be taken to improve the availability of

such programs in these regions. Summer study bursaries to alleviate high university summer school study costs, travel grants to enable attendance at out-of-district programs, increased funding of professional libraries, support for training institutions providing in-service activities to remote areas, and the establishment of regional professional development centres are all measures which could be implemented to improve professional development opportunities for teachers in more remote communities.

7.L Who Teaches Teachers?

This section of the report addresses the questions of who is teaching teachers and who should have the responsibility for that endeavor. The typical response to the first question is a simple 'faculties of education'. That answer, however, fails to recognize the fact that, although the role of faculties of education is undeniably substantial, there are a host of other major influences on the prospective teacher.

First, prospective teachers come to teacher education with clear, if perhaps not always articulated, views on how to teach. These views are a direct legacy of the individual's own experience as a pupil in elementary and secondary school. Approximately one-sixth of the beginning teachers in the province indicated that they had decided on teaching as a career in elementary school. By the end of secondary school, four out of ten of the beginning teachers had made teaching their career choice. As it is difficult to modify models of teaching ingrained over twelve years of school experience, it follows that the profession at large has a major responsibility for teacher education. The classroom teacher is, in effect, teaching future teachers how to teach. If the classroom teacher is a good model, the future of the profession is positively influenced. If, however, the classroom teacher is providing inadequate role modeling, prospective teachers may either shun the profession or develop undesirable practices.

Second, most Canadian teacher education programs include at least the option of a lengthy practicum. During these practica, classroom teachers are again the prime influence on the development of the student teacher. About three-quarters of the education students and two-thirds of the beginning teachers reported that the opportunity to observe good teachers in action was available to them. In both groups, about 85% indicated that the support provided them by such teachers was adequate. It is clear that the profession can have a very direct influence on the formation of its new members through the activities of its present practitioners. It appears, however, that this influence is not sufficiently recognized in the formal structures of teacher education. The School Act stipulates that teachers must help with the formation of new teachers (allow students to observe lessons) but teachers receive virtually no recognition or credit for this role. It should be recognized that being responsible for the supervision of a student teacher on a day-to-day basis places an additional burden on the classroom teacher. It should not be surprising, then, that some members of the profession view the presence of student teachers in their classroom as an intrusion and resist fiercely any placement of student teachers into their care. In situations where students are placed in such teachers' care, the result is sometimes a less-than-profitable experience for all concerned. Since the practical experiences afforded student teachers are of such major importance as pre-practitioner training, it is critical that there be clear criteria in place by which teachers are selected for involvement in the provision of this vital professional service. Such criteria are not always in evidence in placement procedures at present. The three universities, in conjunction with the British Columbia Teachers' Federation and the College of Teachers, need to take the initiative of developing ways and means by which the role of practicing teachers in the formation of new colleagues during practica is more formally articulated and rewarded.

Third, within the university, there are influences outside the faculty of education which bear on the development of the prospective teacher. Education students typically take more coursework in other faculties than in the faculty of education. Education programs are designed this way in an attempt to ensure that prospective teachers graduate with a sufficiently broad background in the liberal arts and sciences. Unfortunately, this sharing of students does not necessarily transfer to a shared ownership of the overall program of teacher education across the faculties of education, arts, and science. Faculties of education succeed to the extent that they do

> *'in spite of the university environment rather than because of it, and I would suggest that the responsibility for this lies at least in some major way with the narrowness of the universities' own conception of their role and their mission with regard to our elementary and secondary schools.' (Shapiro, 1988: 101)*

The narrowness of vision referred to here has numerous undesirable consequences. Elementary teachers in particular find it difficult to design a program of studies which includes arts and science courses of sufficient variety and depth to prepare them for their role as tutors for the province's young minds. Courses in faculties of science, for example, are designed for students wishing to major in science and are therefore very specialized in nature. The emphasis is typically on technique rather than on broad concept formation. As a result, elementary teachers are virtually excluded from any university-level instruction in the sciences. It is simply impossible for them to meet degree requirements in all of the disciplines with which they should have a more than casual acquaintance. Faculties of arts and science generally do not see themselves as instruments for the broad higher education of the general student body, including those who may wish to enter certain professions (like teaching). A radical departure from current practice is required to make the university environment more suitable for teacher preparation. The universities need to examine possibilities for ensuring closer cooperation among the faculties of arts, science, and education with the aim of better discharging the overall responsibility which the university has for teacher education.

8. Teacher Certification

8.A Introduction

The analysis of the briefs submitted to the Commission yielded 1392 references relative to on-site personnel. Of those references, 199 (14.3%) specifically addressed the issue of teacher certification. Almost two-thirds (63%) of the certification references came from parents or the general public. No other 'teacher issue' attracted as much attention as certification, with many public references to making continuing certification contingent on teacher 'change' or 'improvement'. Teachers, though, insist that they have been changing and improving all along. There is a relatively simple explanation for these seemingly opposite opinions.

> *"It seems to me that in this case, and allowing, of course, for the excesses of hyperbole on both sides, both statements are true. Classroom teachers have been engaging in professional development in unprecedented numbers. Although the resulting change may not be easy to perceive, it is at least possible to hypothesize that many of the resulting changes have cancelled each other out simply because—through no fault of the teachers—the changes that we have encouraged have been not principled ones. We go North one day and South the next and East the following day and West the next; and where are we at the end of it all but where we started." (Shapiro, 1986: 17)*

The implicit call here for change to be principled is one which should be kept in mind when examining calls for change, when responding to specific demands, and when considering key issues of the sort which emerged from the analysis of the briefs. Four of those key issues are discussed below: who should be certified and on what grounds, what the basis for certification should be (university degree or competence test), what form the certificate should take, and whether independent school teachers should have special certificates.

8.B Who should be certified and on what grounds?

Earlier in this report, it was argued that all future teachers should be required to possess a suitable undergraduate degree. Considering the increases in the education level of the general population over the past few decades, a baccalaureate must be considered a requirement sine qua non if teachers are to have the broad cultural background they arguably need to have. The emphasis, however, is on the need for *suitable* undergraduate degrees. Degrees which are overspecialized or which are clearly preparatory for academic graduate studies are unlikely to impart an adequate level of general cultural literacy to their graduates. Graduates of such programs are therefore not qualified to become teachers even if they are granted degrees in legitimate disciplines by legitimate universities.

The requirement that all future teachers hold a suitable undergraduate degree implies that a Standard Certificate is not a sufficient qualification for teaching. Its issuance should therefore be discontinued and current holders of Standard Certificates should be required to complete the requirements for a Professional Certificate. A time allowance of seven years should be reasonable for that completion. It should be noted that a requirement of this nature may cause difficulties for teachers in more remote areas of the province since readily available upgrading programs are typically lacking. It is therefore imperative that the universities be given an enhanced capability to deliver degree-completion courses to those areas. Implementation of suggestions made earlier with respect to the provision of assistance to teachers and districts in the Interior and the North would also be beneficial.

There may be some temptation to delay the Professional Certificate requirement in more remote school districts because of the problems of upgrading. However, not only does seven years seem to be a fair time allowance for completion of degree requirements, but, also, the inevitable consequence of delay would be the formal establishment of a

two-tier system of qualification—one certificate for urban areas and one for rural communities. That situation hardly seems desirable.

The question of program content for the prospective teacher has been referred to earlier in this report. There is no doubt that the general public, parents, and teachers all have a great interest in this question, usually manifested in the way of specific and detailed suggestions for courses which out to be required. Not surprisingly, briefs from various interest groups contain suggestions commensurate with the objectives and philosophies of the groups. The position stated earlier in this report, and repeated here, is that the question of *how* certain knowledge and particular skills are instilled in prospective teachers is best answered by the universities—but reflecting clear recommendations from the major educational stakeholders through the College of Teachers as to *what* the outcomes of the teacher education program should be. In that regard, it should be noted that various briefs call for more attention to be given to special education, fine arts, English-as-a-Second-Language, multiculturalism, science and technology, and counselling. In addition, extensive practical experience is seen as particularly valuable and has been strongly endorsed elsewhere in this report.

Implementing a program with sufficient time devoted to each of the areas called for in the briefs is an impossibility. Some distinction must be made between what a novice teacher must know and be able to do and what an experienced teacher might be expected to demonstrate. It is the profession which must make this distinction and convey its position to the universities. Otherwise, the demands on the pre-service program will without question exceed not only the time available but also the abilities of the students. Initial teacher education should be limited to basic teacher education with specialization in education fields such as counselling, learning assistance, physical education occurring subsequently. This deferred specialization is particularly appropriate for elementary school teachers—their initial training should primarily focus on the development of generalists.

8.C The basis for certification: university degree or competence test?

The analysis of the briefs found relatively few references to a need to delay teacher certification until a candidate passed a specific test. The approach suggested in those references was usually that

> *'all entrants to the teaching profession should take a SAT test and be required to score as high as lawyers, as well as a test in written and oral English'.*

An approach of this nature would constitute a major variation from current provincial practice. Presently, teachers in British Columbia are certified by the College of Teachers upon recommendation of the universities. Once university requirements are satisfied, the Dean of the university faculty of education makes a recommendation that a particular individual be granted entry into the profession.

The imposition of a requirement that prospective teachers pass one or more specific tests would see the entry criteria in this province more closely resemble the criteria in most American States. The appropriateness of that resemblance is discussed below.

In the United States, the use of teacher competence tests has been promoted strongly as an additional element in the requirements for teacher certification. As of April, 1987, all but two of the American states either had in place, or planned to introduce, testing programs aimed at the assessment of basic skills, professional knowledge, or command of subject matter. In the vast majority of cases, the programs are quite new, with little solid evaluation of their effectiveness possible. A comment from one of the most penetrating reviews in the area of competence testing reflects this lack of evidence:

> *'In summary, while raising admission standards to teacher education testing teachers' knowledge prior to their certification are among the most widely proposed reforms on the nation's school reform agenda, there is little evidence that conventional ways of screening—except, perhaps, tests of teachers' verbal ability—have predictable results. There is simply no way to know what minimal standards for admission, either to the college (of teacher education) or to the teaching profession, would result in denying access to persons who would not be successful teachers.' (Evertson, Howley, and Zlotnik, 1984: 13)*

Three years after the above review, the research arm of the United States Department of Education stated that 'many current certification testing programs, however, do not provide adequate standards, and hence, cannot live up to expectations' (Rudner, 1987).

Among the difficulties cited with respect to current competence tests for teachers is the inability of the tests to measure the skills needed to teach students at different ages and with different backgrounds. Coupled with the fact that the tests cannot capture the extent to which a teacher is motivated to teach, this inability provides substantial argument against the use of such tests unless they can be radically altered from what they are now. In view of the fact that Canadian prospective teachers possess a generally higher level of general education than their American counterparts, in view of the fact that British Columbia has only three teacher education institutions (compared to much larger numbers of institutions in most states), and in view of the fact that faith in paper-and-pencil measurement of complex skills is less widespread in Canada than in the United States, teacher certification in this province should continue to be based on evidence of program completion at an accredited Canadian university. Efforts to introduce teacher competence tests into the certification process should be strongly resisted.

8.D What form should certification take?

There are two issues of importance in the professional literature with respect to the form of teacher certification. The same two issues also showed up quite clearly in the analysis of the briefs. The first issue is whether certification should be temporary or permanent; the second issue is whether certificates should be general or endorsed (for a particular subject or grade level). These issues are discussed separately in the next two sections of this report.

8.C.1 Temporary or permanent certification?

In Canada, five provinces provide permanent certificates upon initial certification: British Columbia, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Ontario, and New Brunswick. The other provinces require two years of successful teaching before an initial interim certificate is replaced by a permanent certificate. It should be added that, although Ontario issues a permanent certificate, it amounts to a provincial licence to teach in that length of service and tenure are determined by collective agreement between school boards and teachers.

In British Columbia, the Gallup survey which formed part of *Let's Talk About Schools* (B.C. Ministry of Education, 1985) indicated that both the public and the teaching force favored renewable certificates. Only 14% of the general public and, somewhat surprisingly, only 38% of the teaching force favored certification for life. By contrast, 84% of the public and 58% of the teachers thought that teachers should have to renew their certification after a specific period of time. The remainder of each group were undecided or had no opinion.

It must be recognized that one mark of true professionalism is self-regulation. Professionals have a large stake in maintaining the standards of practice in their field. Teachers have expressed positive attitudes towards renewable, as opposed to life, certification and it is perhaps true that periodic renewal of certificates as a measure of internal regulation would reaffirm teachers' commitment to professionalism and also result in increased public confidence and status afforded the profession. The College of Teachers should therefore establish requirements for certification renewal (including length of time between renewals) which are formulated in a way which maximizes the individual teacher's choice with respect to how those requirements might be satisfied. It should be noted that the requirements are *professional* (as opposed to bureaucratic) in nature. There should consequently be little, if any, involvement of other stakeholders.

8.D.2 Endorsed certificates or not?

The second issue relates to the desirability of endorsing a teacher's certificate to make it only valid for certain grades or subjects. In Canada, few provinces use any form of endorsement, primarily because of two difficulties: the difficul-

ty of deciding which specific experiences, courses, degree, and so on qualify a person to teach a given subject at a given level; and the even greater difficulty of enabling any but the largest secondary schools to staff all courses/levels with 'qualified' (i.e. endorsed) teachers.

The position taken in this report is that, while parents and the public have the right to expect that people teaching in classrooms are qualified to be there, endorsement of certificates results in an unnecessarily rigid classification of teachers as qualified or unqualified for particular assignments. University transcripts provide a sufficiently detailed record of studies which can be easily used by local administrative personnel to help determine who is the best applicant for a particular local need. Local personnel are clearly in the best position to make selection and assignment decisions. With the freedom to make those decisions, of course, goes the responsibility to justify a particular course of action with respect to selection and appointment.

8.E Special Certification for Independent School Teachers

The concern that the general public expresses about the qualifications and certification of the teaching force is a direct reflection of a desire to have an appropriately educated citizenry (however that concept is defined). There needs to be a balance between the right of a family to choose for its children a particular course of educational activity and the need of the greater society to ensure that its citizens grow up in a 'common public space', to use Maxine Greene's term. There may be some justification for debate as to whether or not teachers who will pursue careers in independent schools should receive their teacher education at public universities (the position taken here is that they should), but there seems to be absolutely no justification for an argument that different standards are acceptable for teachers in public schools and teachers in independent schools. The issuance of the 'independent school certificate' should cease and teachers in independent schools should be required to meet the general certification criteria in force for teachers in public schools.

9. Focus on Teacher Competence

In the early years of public education, teachers were subject to an array of arbitrary and capricious reasons for dismissal. Not surprisingly, teachers, along with other public employees, sought protection against abuses. As such protection came into place, usually through legislation, court rulings, and arbitral precedence, the balance between a teacher's rights to protection from unfair dismissal and the employer's responsibility to manage school district affairs in the public interest became an object of controversy. Like most controversies in education, the issue of teacher security versus the public interest is highly complex.

School boards and teachers are both sensitive to allegations that the school system and the profession fail to oust incompetent teachers. School boards cite burdensome and strict procedural requirements and the high costs associated with the appeal of dismissal actions as formidable obstacles to dismissing incompetent teachers. Teachers' associations, on the other hand, argue that procedural protections against dismissal exist not to protect incompetent teachers but to prevent school boards from firing teachers for less-than-valid reasons. The associations argue that, if incompetent teachers continue to be employed, the fault lies not with teachers but with school board hiring and induction practices, failure to provide sufficient instructional support, and/or failure to ensure adequate documentation of teacher incompetence.

The documentation of incompetence is not an easy undertaking, however. Incompetence is a concept with imprecise technical meaning. Only two states in the United States have defined or attempted to define incompetence or competence; no provincial legislature in Canada has yet approached the task. In the absence of legislative guidance, courts and arbitrators have shown little inclination to define the criteria and standards by which incompetence can be judged.

With the passage of the *Industrial Relations Act* and the *Teaching Profession Act*, teachers' associations in British Columbia are now certified as trade unions. The *Industrial Relations Act* also contains provisions for governing employment conditions for teachers unless the *School Act* specifies otherwise. Section 93 of the *Industrial Relations Act* specifies that:

> '(1) every collective agreement shall contain a provision governing dismissal or discipline of an employee bound by the agreement, and that or another provision shall require that the employer have a just and reasonable cause for dismissal or discipline of an employee; but this section shall not prohibit the parties to a collective agreement from including in it a different provision for employment of certain employees on a probationary basis.
>
> (2) Every collective agreement shall contain a provision for final and conclusive settlement without stoppage of work, by arbitration or another method agreed to by the parties, of all disputes between the persons bound by the agreement respecting its interpretation, application, operation or alleged violation, including a question as to whether a matter is arbitrable.
>
> (3) Where a collective agreement does not contain a provision referred to in subsections (1) and (2), it is deemed to contain those of the following provisions it does not contain:
>
> (a) the employer shall not dismiss or discipline an employee bound by this agreement except for just and reasonable cause;
>
> (b) where a difference arises between the parties relating to the dismissal or discipline of an employee, or to the interpretation, application or alleged violation of this agreement, including a question as to whether a matter is arbitrable, either of the parties, without stoppage of work, may, after exhausting any grievance procedure established by this agreement, notify the other party in writing of its desire to submit the difference to arbitration, and the parties shall agree on a single arbitrator, the arbitrator shall hear and determine the difference and issue a decision, which is final and binding on the parties and any person affected by it.'

Under Section 122 of the old *School Act*, a board 'may at any time suspend a teacher with or without pay from the performance of his duties: (a) for misconduct, neglect of duty or neglect to obey a lawful order of the board; or (b) where the teacher has been charged with a criminal offence ....' This provision has been repealed as a result of the passage of the *Teaching Profession Act* and replaced with:

'122 (1) A board may dismiss or discipline a teacher for just and reasonable cause.

(2) Where a board dismisses or disciplines a teacher whose employment is the subject of a collective agreement under the *Industrial Relations Act*, the grievance procedures of the collective agreement and Part 6 of the *Industrial Relations Act*, where applicable, apply to the dismissal or disciplinary action.

122.1 (1) Where a board considers that the learning situation in a class or classes of a teacher is less than satisfactory, the board may (a) dismiss the teacher, or (b) order the teacher to take remedial action that the board considers necessary or advisable.

(2) A teacher who is the subject of an action by a board under subsection (1) has the same rights with respect to that action as though he were dismissed or disciplined under section 122(1), and sections 122(2) to (4) apply, except that the references to dismissal or disciplinary action apply as though they were references to the dismissal or remedial action.'

Prior to the enactment of the *Teaching Profession Act*, the system for evaluating the performance of a teacher was known colloquially as the 'three-report system'. Before a school board could dismiss a teacher for incompetence, it was to have in its possession at least three reports indicating that the learning situation in the class or classes of the teacher was 'less than satisfactory'. These three reports generally had to have been issued in a period of not less than twelve months and not more than twenty-four months. The reports had to be written by at least two report writers: one by the superintendent or assistant superintendent, and the other two by the superintendent, assistant superintendent, director of instruction, or principal of the school to which the teacher was assigned.

A teacher who was dismissed on the grounds of incompetence had a statutory right to have the termination reviewed by a Review Commission. Review Commissions were required to be comprised of three experienced educators under Section 130 of the *School Act*. Normally, the Review Commission heard evidence from the report writers and the teacher about the validity of the reports and any extraneous factors which adversely impacted on the learning situation in the teacher's classes.

With the enactment of the *Teaching Profession Act*, the Regulations to the *School Act* underwent substantial amendment. In particular, the regulations which established the three-report system of evaluating teacher performance were repealed. The *School Act* and Regulations are now silent on the matter of dismissing a teacher for incompetence. While the superintendent may still formally inspect or cause to be inspected the work of the teachers under Section 6(1)(k) of the Act, the school board is no longer required to have a specified number of reports to dismiss a teacher for incompetence. Rather, Section 122.1 of the *School Act* simply requires that the school board may dismiss a teacher when the school board decides that the 'learning situation in the class or classes is less than satisfactory'. Should a teacher dispute a decision to dismiss, that teacher now has the right to grieve the dismissal to a Board of Reference or, once a grievance and arbitration provision is included in a collective agreement, to an arbitration board with the powers and duties provided in the *Industrial Relations Act*.

In effect, the enactment of the *Industrial Relations Act*, the *Teaching Profession Act*, and amendments to the *School Act* means that evaluating teacher competence is now a legitimate subject for a collective agreement inasmuch as an unsatisfactory evaluation may lead to dismissal. Since the *Industrial Relations Act* requires all collective agreements to have a grievance provision, a teacher evaluation clause in a collective agreement is grievable and arbitrable.

For the school board's part, it is expected that many school boards will want to leave the matter of teacher evaluations out of the collective agreement (as is the case with most unionized employers) or, at least, establish a process which is more effective than the old three-report system. School boards consider it essential to the quality of education in the province that any system of teacher evaluation which is adopted be fair, but not so technical that an arbitration board

focuses on procedural requirements rather than on the teacher's performance in the classroom. Depending upon what results from the negotiating process, it will be more or less difficult to dismiss a teacher for incompetence than it is currently.

School boards and the teaching profession have strong and mutual interests in the matter of teacher competence. For school boards, it is in the public interest to protect competent teachers and to protect students from the influence of incompetent and marginally competent teachers. For teachers, it is consistent with their objectives of professionalism and public confidence to work towards fair but expeditious means of ridding the teaching profession of incompetent teachers in ways not prejudicial to collective and individual security of employment. The mutual interests of the public through an elected school board and teachers through a representative association can best be achieved in a consultative bicameral structure. Such a structure now exists in the form of a collectively negotiated agreement.

10. The Work Environment of Teachers

10.A Introduction

Teaching is demanding work. Not only are there the day-to-day rigors of classroom life—the management and direction of twenty to forty students at a time—but there are also a number of other factors contributing to stress in the teacher's work environment. Over two-thirds of the teachers responding to the practicing teacher questionnaire reported that their job was stressful. In addition, teaching has perhaps less than its share of rewards and incentives. Only about one teacher in four (22.7%) reported satisfaction with current salary—63.9% were dissatisfied. Teachers were somewhat more positive about the non-monetary compensation which their positions afford them but less than half expressed satisfaction and one teacher in three was dissatisfied.

In view of the opinions expressed by teachers with respect to the stressful nature of their work and, for many, its lack of appropriate rewards and incentives, it is surprising that so many teachers express a generally high level of overall satisfaction with teaching. Almost three-quarters of the teachers expressed that sentiment. Nonetheless, evidence from other parts of the questionnaire (for example, the potential for the profession to lose half its practitioners if they had the opportunity) and from the analysis of submissions by individual teachers, teacher groups, and school administrators points clearly to weakening enthusiasm and a decline in positive orientation among teachers. The remainder of this section focuses on reasons for these attitudinal changes and on ways in which the work environment of teachers might be ameliorated.

10.B Reasons for Declining Teacher Morale

As well as the stress, reward, and incentive factors mentioned above, several major influences serve to adversely affect the work environment of the classroom teacher. First, there is the continuing confrontation at the provincial level between the government and the British Columbia Teachers' Federation. As mentioned earlier only 3.3% of the respondents to the practicing teacher questionnaire see the government as affording them professional status (as opposed to about 70% who see parents affording them that status). The teacher view that the government has little regard for teachers' abilities is not without foundation. Absence of formal consultation and collaboration with teachers prior to the establishment of new programs and lack of discussion before the implementation of structures which directly affect teachers' working conditions have been prime factors in exacerbating teacher-government relations. These unilateral government actions, coupled with a disproportionate attribution by government of increased costs and loss of productivity in public education to demands by teachers for improved salaries and reduced workloads, eventually take a toll on individual classroom teachers.

Second, there has recently been a rapid introduction (again, often without formal teacher consultation) of new and revised provincial curricula into the province's classrooms. These new and revised curricula have interacted with expanded public expectations for education and with an increased diversity of the intellectual, social, and emotional needs of students in regular classrooms to provide a workload for classroom teachers that is, mildly put, formidable.

Third, an increasing proportion of the population does not have children in school. This segment of the population is distant from the immediate benefits of public education and is becoming increasingly resistive to rising school costs, regardless of the appropriateness of cost increases. In addition, this group tends to hold teachers in somewhat less regard than do parents and others with direct school contact. Only 13.3% of the practicing teachers felt that they were viewed as professionals by this group.

The above factors, above and beyond what actually takes place in the way of classroom instruction, affect student intellectual and attitudinal growth and achievement through the direct and indirect effect they have on individual teachers. Teachers require societal support in order to perform their roles effectively—there are limits to what teachers alone can achieve. Given the conditions which exist in the province today with respect to governmental and public support for education, those limits have very likely been reached. The next two sections of this report detail the aspects of the work environment which teachers themselves see as most salient, and discuss what teachers would do to improve their working conditions.

10.C Teacher Satisfaction With Working Conditions

About three out of four (76.7%) practicing teachers are satisfied with the degree of professional autonomy they have with respect to the selection of instructional materials for their classroom. Even more (90.2%) feel the same way about their freedom to choose the teaching methods they will employ. About two out of three (67.2%) are satisfied with the amount of academic freedom they have in presenting material with different points of view. Teachers are also positive about the way that student discipline is handled in their school and the degree of support which they receive from administrators with respect to student discipline. Approximately three-quarters of the respondents to the practicing teacher questionnaire also reported being satisfied with their school (80.3%) and with teaching in general (72.5%).

On the other hand, teachers reported being less than satisfied with the amount of time available to them for lesson preparation (67.1% were dissatisfied, 22.9% were satisfied). Related to the lack of preparation time is the adequacy of para-professional support for the classroom teacher. Only one teacher in four (24.6%) was positive about the extent of such support. This result is not particularly surprising given that 77.4% of the teaching force reported not having access to the services of a teacher aide. Five percent reported having sole access to an aide's services and the remainder (17.6%) indicated sharing an aide with other teachers.

Teacher dissatisfaction with both monetary and non-monetary compensation was discussed in the introduction to this part of the report. With respect to monetary compensation, merit pay is often suggested as a means of rewarding superior teachers. This type of reward is addressed later in this report under Teacher Compensation. For now, it is sufficient to note that teachers themselves are largely negative to this concept—50.2% expressed opposition, 26.3% were in favor, and the remainder were undecided. Considerations such as opportunities for advancement in the profession and perceived status in the community were not seen in a particularly positive light by teachers—only about a third (35.5% and 31.2% respectively) were satisfied with these aspects.

It should be noted that independent school teachers appear generally more satisfied with their work environment than are public school teachers. Satisfaction with salary levels, non-monetary rewards, amount of preparation time, opportunities for advancement, perceived community status, perceived government support, and current stress level is considerably higher for independent school teachers.

In general, for both public and independent school teachers, the aspects of the work environment which cause the greatest concern are the same—differences tend to be in degree, not in kind. Questionnaire data and the analysis of briefs make clear the anxiety experienced by classroom teachers because of inadequate preparation time, low community status, inadequate advancement opportunities, lack of support personnel, insufficient salary levels, classroom stress, increased societal demands, bigger classes, and integration of exceptional needs students. Beginning teachers have the additional stress of having to be concerned about classroom management/discipline matters and inappropriate assignments. In the face of such an array of obstacles to positive motivation and professional self-fulfillment, the fact that three-quarters of the respondents to the practicing teacher questionnaire indicated overall satisfaction with teaching is a tribute to their tenacity and dedication. There is, clearly, great need for change in the working environment of the classroom teacher.

10.D Teacher Suggestions for Change

The analysis of the briefs submitted by individual teachers and teacher groups, plus the results of the practicing teacher questionnaire, identified very clearly those aspects of the teacher's working environment in which teachers most desired change. In view of earlier discussion in this report, the five most frequently identified changes are not surprising:

1. reduce class sizes,
2. provide more classroom support services (additional teacher aides, greater library allocations, and expanded counselling services),
3. supply more time for planning and preparation,
4. improve the status of teachers in the community, particularly by promotion by government of the values of education in general and the contribution of teachers in particular, and
5. increase professional development opportunities.

These suggestions for change deserve serious consideration. It should be noted that many briefs from parents and the general public also supported these, and other, changes. Clearly, the motivation needs of teachers must be addressed before excellence in teaching and learning can become the norm in the province's schools. To ignore teachers' suggestions is to be insensitive to the realities faced, on a daily basis, by those who work with young people in classrooms. it is also to ignore the findings of decades of research, perhaps best summed up by the following statement:

'The empowerment and renewal of teachers is the key to the improvement of the schools—through the decisions that teachers make about persons, about the events in the classroom setting, about themselves as members of a larger profession, and about themselves as professional persons.'
(Bolin and Falk, 1987)

It must be remembered, also, that there is considerable evidence that individuals who choose to teach are among the most idealistic members of the community. It would be un unfortunate blow to the purposes of education in this province if the ideals which teachers bring to their work are 'compromised' and denigrated by a refusal to consider their personal and professional needs. In the final analysis, the schools either succeed in meeting society's needs, or simply limp along—and success or lameness is largely dependent on the skills and commitment of the system's teachers (Engel, 1986). The support which teachers presently receive comes from within the system—from administrators, colleagues, parents, and from professional development activities emphasizing discussion, collaboration, and consultation with peers—and from within the individual—through motivation, ability, experience, commitment, concern for studies, and faith in the value of education. Without support from beyond those two sources, education in British Columbia is unlikely to meet the needs of its future generation.

10.E Class Size

It may be of value at this point to discuss the primary recommendation cited in the previous section—a reduction in class size. While the benefits to the educational process are relatively apparent for the other four concerns, the issue of class size is one which warrants some analysis.

Each period of each school day, the typical classroom teacher meets with twenty-five to thirty-five students. During each class, teachers ask questions, respond to student questions, lecture, direct group and individual activities, check homework, discipline unruly students, change from one activity to another, and engage in a host of other endeavors designed to enhance the learning situation. Teachers have thousands of meaningful encounters with students every school day. During this multiplicity of encounters, classroom teachers must continuously seek and apply ways to adjust to the conflict between the responsibility to instruct an entire class, and the need to be aware of the personal needs of individual students (Glickman, 1986: 30).

It is not surprising that teachers prefer smaller classes. Nor is it surprising that teachers cite increases in class sizes as the most formidable obstacle to teaching and learning effectiveness and reductions in class size as the most desired change in their work environment. For beginning teachers especially, class size is by far the most significant source of stress (identified by 61.4% of beginning teachers) and the feature of their work for which they feel the least prepared.

There are two quite separate aspects to the matter of class size. The first is the research issue—a focus on the degree to which teachers' faith in the positive benefits of smaller class sizes can be empirically demonstrated. The second is the policy issue—a focus on the extent to which the considerable costs of the additional teachers and classrooms associated with class size reductions are justified by the effects.

Research findings on the effects of class size on student achievement are, after four decades of examination, largely contradictory and inconclusive. This lack of definitive answers regarding class size effect is largely due to differences in the operational meanings of 'small' and 'large', the inaccuracies and varieties of the achievement measures used, and the host of uncontrolled and unknown variables which affect achievement and therefore confound the interpretation of research results.

The focal studies in the issue of class size are the controversial 'meta-analyses' conducted by Glass and Smith (1979, 1980). These analyses were rigorous examinations of class size studies undertaken since the 1920s, and sought to identify differences between small and large classes with respect to student achievement, classroom practices employed, and teacher and student attitudes. The conclusions, still debated today, were that positive relationships existed between smaller classes and higher student achievement, and between smaller classes and favorable teacher and student attitudes. The relationships were most dramatic in instances where the size of class dipped below 25 students.

The stance taken in this report is that smaller class sizes do have a positive impact on student achievement and attitude. However, a variety of other variables interact with class size in this regard. Among the most significant of these variables are the extent to which:

1. a school staff believes all students can achieve and works collaboratively to see that they do,
2. the environment in the school supports and complements the efforts of classroom teachers,
3. the structures in the school provides for meaningful and collaborative teacher participation in making decisions about school programs and priorities,
4. classroom teaching is diagnostic—identifying individual student requirements, tailoring teaching methods to student readiness, monitoring student progress, and providing specific and frequent feedback to students,
5. adequate resources—instructional materials and para-professional and specialized support services—are available to classroom teachers, and
6. teachers are prepared to modify their methods to take full educational advantage of smaller classes and increased support.

It cannot be argued that smaller classes, *by themselves*, have a decisive impact on the quality of the learning environment. Rather, it is the opportunity which smaller classes afford the classroom teacher for more varied instructional techniques and for more individualized and small group instruction. These aspects, coupled with the factors delineated above, constitute the machinery for achieving the promise that smaller classes have for increased student achievement. Conversely, large classes make it much more difficult, if not impossible, to succeed in reforms undertaken to increase the quality and significance of instruction.

The analysis of the briefs revealed little opposition to the belief that class size affects that quality of classroom life for teachers and students alike. There appears to be general acceptance of that point of view despite the overall inconclusiveness of class size research. Where disagreement is evident, however, is in regard to the jurisdictional aspect of class size. Teachers' associations seek application of class size prescriptions through formula, a position reflected by the

British Columbia Teachers' Association's policies on class sizes and staffing allocations. Such formula effectively place control of the class size issue in the professional jurisdiction. School boards, however, while appearing sympathetic to smaller classes, view formulas establishing class size maximums as inflexible. In addition, boards resist providing teacher associations with what trustees see as inordinate control over district educational policy-making and school management. Further, school boards are naturally concerned about the costs for the additional teachers and facilities likely required under class size formulas.

In sum, the position taken in this report is that students at different levels of personal and intellectual development require different learning conditions for the realization of desired levels of progress, growth, and achievement, and that class size is a most important and critical factor to be considered in this regard. Small classes have the potential to offer better opportunities for teaching and learning. However, since schools differ in terms of the needs of their teachers and students, and since class size is so inexorably related to other school and classroom factors influencing achievement, rigid formula dictating maximum class sizes are no guarantee of improved achievement. Class sizes are best established at the school level, on a case by case basis, and with meaningful participation by classroom teachers. That is not to say that general guidelines at the district or provincial level are unnecessary. Rather, lack of rigidity allows for an essential degree of individual school autonomy in organizing the school for instruction.

11. Teacher Compensation

11.A Legal Framework

Teachers in British Columbia were historically treated differently from other employees in the province in that they were not subject to the labour legislation in effect for other public employees. instead, the terms and conditions of employment for teachers were governed by specific legislation, in particular, the *School Act* and its predecessor, the *Public Schools Act*. The *Public Schools Act* permitted school boards to unilaterally establish the salary level of teachers employed in their school districts. However, as early as 1922, it also provided for a system of arbitration to settle salaries. Local teachers' associations have therefore had a long history of negotiating with school boards on salaries and participating in a system of binding third-party arbitration if no agreement could be reached.

Until the *Industrial Relations Act* and the *Teaching Profession Act* were enacted, the basic system of negotiation followed by interest arbitration as a means of settling teacher salaries remained essentially unchanged. Arbitration itself, however, moved from being an optional means of settling salary disputes to a process which was mandatory at the instigation of either the school board or the local teachers' association. Further, the legislation subsequently introduced a three-phase system of negotiation, conciliation, and arbitration. In addition, the legislation expanded the scope of collective bargaining to 'bonuses' (financial benefits) as well as salaries.

The provision of the *School Act* and the *Public Schools Act* which provided for a system of negotiation, conciliation, and arbitration of salaries and bonuses did not establish any criteria to guide either the parties, the conciliator, or the arbitration board as to how to determine teacher salaries and bonuses. Prior to the advent of the Compensation Stabilization Program in 1982, some arbitrators sought to give guidance to parties by establishing criteria utilized in other interest arbitrations in the public sector. However, because the criteria were not established by legislation, there was no consistent application of these criteria. For example, some arbitration boards determined that settlements in the private sector had more significance than settlements in other school districts. other arbitration boards, applying the principles of the B.C. *Rail* case, found that other school district settlements were the best evidence of what would constitute an appropriate salary award for teachers.

Despite these problems with the process of negotiation, conciliation, and arbitration under the *School Act* prior to the Compensation Stabilization Program, teachers were generally not unhappy with the system of establishing salaries and bonuses if for no other reason than that their wages typically kept pace with community settlements in the public and private sector.

In 1982, a system of wage controls called the Compensation Stabilization Program was introduced by the provincial government. This program was explained as a temporary measure to alleviate an economic downturn in the provincial economy and applied to all employees in the public sector (including teachers). There were two aspects to the Compensation Stabilization Program—one voluntary, one mandatory. The voluntary aspect was known as the 'Guidelines' and allowed the parties who were subject to the legislation to negotiate a compensation plan within the guidelines established by the Compensation Stabilization Commissioner. The second aspect, known as the 'Regulations', was mandatory in the sense that it empowered the Commissioner to order the terms of the compensation plan between the parties if they failed to reach an agreement on a compensation plan that was within the Guidelines. The Regulations were never used by the Commissioner.

When the Compensation Stabilization Program was first introduced, it established a maximum allowable wage increase. This system was later modified so that the employer's 'ability to pay' was required to be the paramount consideration used by the parties, or any arbitration board acting in place of the parties, in determining whether there should be *any* increase of the compensation plan. If the employer had no ability to pay, the allowable increase in the compensation plan was determined by recourse to other settlements in the provincial public sector. Thus, although

no maximum increase in compensation levels was provided for in the legislation, as a practical matter the parties had to come within the level the Commissioner determined existed in the public sector.

The significance of the Compensation Stabilization Program to the collective bargaining structure in effect for teachers was that it restricted the collective bargaining process and also restricted the role of salary arbitration boards in determining the salaries and bonuses paid to teachers.

The limitation on the role of salary arbitration boards was particularly pronounced as a result of the coincidental change in the system for financing school boards. At the same time that the government introduced the Compensation Stabilization Program, it also introduced the *Education Interim Finance Act*. The Act took away the authority of local school boards to tax residential and non-residential property and made board funding dependent on a system of government grants. The grants to the school boards significantly reduced the funds which had previously been available for educational programs and services. Further, the government funding formula did not account for salary increases. Thus, when school boards came before salary arbitration boards they argued that they did not have the ability to pay. Salary arbitration boards were then left with the unenviable task of either saying to school boards that they must find the monies needed for salary increases in some other area of programs or services, or of saying to teachers that the school boards had indeed demonstrated an inability to pay any increases and, therefore, no increases could be awarded.

Consequently, in several of the recent awards of salary arbitration boards, there was a clear sense of frustration evident. Salary arbitration boards resented the role the government had cast for them—in effect, they were expected to perform the same role as the Commissioner. Salary arbitration boards were obliged to determine whether the school board had the ability to pay and, if so, what the extent was of this ability to pay. Additionally, the awards of salary arbitration boards were still subject to scrutiny by the Commissioner and if, for example, an increase to the compensation plan was awarded which was in excess of what the Commissioner decided was allowable, the award would be sent back to the salary arbitration board which rendered the award. Salary arbitration boards, therefore, had no final power to determine salaries and bonuses. Consequently, they were perceived by the parties as an unnecessary and additional expense to an already financially strapped education system.

In 1986, the government introduced a Bill to amend the *Education Interim Finance Act* and restored the authority of school boards to impose taxes on residential property. School boards, however, were not given the power to tax non-residential property as they had been in the past. They were still largely dependent on the system of government grants and the government in its grants provided little if any monies for salary increases. The government effectively said to school boards that if they wished to grant salary increases to teachers they would have to increase taxes on residential property.

With the advent of the *Industrial Relations Act* and the *Teaching Profession Act*, the structure for establishing teacher compensation was rationalized and legitimized. The *Industrial Relations Act* provided teachers with three alternative mechanisms for establishing the terms and conditions of their employment:

(a) Teachers may individually negotiate the terms and conditions of their employment;

(b) Teachers may negotiate through a teacher association, which association must represent a majority of the teachers in the school district but which is not certified under the *Industrial Relations Act*; or

(c) Teachers may negotiate through teacher unions which have been certified under the *Industrial Relations Act* as the exclusive bargaining agent for the teachers in the school district.

The majority of teachers in all of the school districts in the province have recently elected to negotiate through teacher unions (although they are still called teacher associations). While individual bargaining is provided for in the legislation, it is not a viable alternative given the history of teacher collective bargaining in British Columbia. However, collective bargaining through a teacher association (non-certified) could have been a viable alternative to teacher unions had the legislation provided a mandatory mechanism for resolving collective bargaining disputes (i.e. interest arbitration) and not limited the matters which could be resolved through the voluntary interest arbitration process (i.e. to salary and bonus matters). These two aspects, one of omission and one of limitation, effectively emasculated any alternative collective bargaining mechanism to teacher unions.

Teachers are now 'employees' under the *Industrial Relations Act* and are, therefore, entitled to engage in collective bargaining, to enter into a collective agreement, to strike, and to all of the other rights granted to employees and their certified bargaining agents under that Act. School boards are also subject to the *Industrial Relations Act* and have the rights and duties of other employers under the Act—including both the right to bargain collectively through an employers' organization and the right to lock out.

11.B The Structure of Teacher Compensation

Salary schedules negotiated in the past have been a blend of level of certification (years of university) and seniority (years of teaching experience). That mixture is likely the basis for the structure of future salary settlements as well. Prior to the passage of the *Teaching Profession Act*, allowances in addition to the basic salary schedule were negotiated for positions of additional responsibility or leadership such as principals, vice-principals, consultants, coordinators, and secondary school department heads. These additional allowances were, for principals and vice-principals, usually tied to school size and were typically calculated as a percentage of the final step of the basic salary schedule. Allowances for other positions of leadership such as consultant, coordinator, and department head were normally a percentage of the final step on the basic salary schedule.

With the passage of the *Teaching Profession Act*, principals, vice-principals, and directors of instruction were, effective January 1, 1988, designated as 'Administrative Officers' and excluded from the teacher bargaining unit. Their terms and conditions of employment became not collectively negotiated but established through individual contracts with the school board. In some districts, positions like coordinator or supervisor of instruction have also been designated Administrative Officer positions and excluded from collective bargaining.

There are two characteristics of the current structure of teacher compensation that warrant some mention. First, the present structure is highly compressed. The salary difference between an inexperienced (beginning), minimally certificated teacher and a more highly certificated, fully experienced (twelve or more years) teacher is small—typically the salary of the highly qualified veteran is no larger than two and one-half times that of the minimally qualified beginner. In effect, all salary gains exclusive of collectively negotiated increases are achieved in the first twelve years. In real terms, teachers therefore 'top out' in their mid-thirties, with little or no prospect of salary growth beyond that point. To move up in terms of salary, the teacher is required to move out of the classroom to an administrative position such as the principalship or vice-principalship.

A second characteristic of the present structure of financial rewards and incentives for teachers is that the level of salary does not differentiate between that awarded a highly gifted teacher and that afforded a mediocre or marginal teacher of equivalent certification and seniority. This aspect of teacher compensation drew some attention in the briefs submitted to the Commission, often accompanied by some reference to merit pay or performance bonuses. These considerations are discussed in the section entitled 'Merit Pay'.

11.C Current Teacher Compensation

The first and most basic requirement for a fair structure of compensation for classroom teachers is a good basic salary with regular incremental increases. A minimum requirement for a good basic salary is market sensitivity. A comparison of changes in teacher salaries to changes in the Consumer Price Index indicates that teacher salaries have recently lost ground and have become market insensitive.

It is often argued that the gain in average teacher salaries has surpassed increases in the Consumer Price Index. In fact, as shown in an earlier section of this report, average teacher salaries have increased from $17,861 in 1976-77 to $39,216 in 1986-87. This increase is misleading in that a large part of the increase in teacher salaries is attributable to changes in the certification, professional preparation level, and experience of teachers during the same period. A more meaningful comparison is one between salaries of teachers at specific levels of training and experience.

In 1976, a beginning teacher with four years of academic and professional preparation earned $12,144. In 1986, a beginning teacher with the same qualifications earned $22,358, an increase of 82.4 percent over 1976. Similar increases can be seen at the median scale level for a four-year Professional Certificate holder (88.7% increase) and for a similarly certificated teacher at the maximum scale point (80.4% increase). For five-year Professional Certificate holders the increases are similar—82.5% for a beginner, 88.6% for a median-level teacher, and 80.4% for a top-of-the-scale teacher.

Naturally, consumer price indexes and wages/salaries increased substantially over the same period. According to Statistics Canada (1985-86), the Consumer Price Index *for Canada* increased by 110% over the same period and the Consumer Price Index for *Vancouver* increased by 100.5%. In effect, the basic salary schedule for teachers in British Columbia has increased by substantially less than either the Canadian or Vancouver Consumer Price Index. The current inadequacy of teachers' basic salaries relative to the Consumer Price Index has been a constant source of frustration and dissatisfaction to teachers. Teacher salaries must be increased to an adequate level of compensation if teachers are to be seen, and to see themselves, as worthy professionals performing a difficult societal function.

11.D Merit Pay

The foregoing call for higher teacher salaries cannot be dismissed on the grounds that the public presently considers teachers to be overpaid. There was no evidence of such a stance in the public briefs submitted to the Commission. On the contrary, a number of submissions, not only from teachers, but also from parents, the public, and various interest groups suggested that teachers deserve more. There is however, no compelling evidence for the provision of additional remuneration in the form of merit pay, although that was suggested in some briefs. No substantial argument exists for concluding that performance-based bonuses have any significant positive impact on the ability of the profession to attract recruits, on the enthusiasm and dedication of practicing teachers, or on the motivation of teachers to greater effort and performance. On the contrary, with merit pay, the morale of unrewarded teachers tends to decline with a corresponding negative influence on staff relationships. In addition, principals, concerned with using performance appraisals as a vehicle for professional growth, might well become reluctant to enter appraisal situations where the results directly influence teacher salaries. Finally, the profession itself does not appear to be in favor of merit pay—only one practicing public school teacher in four supports the idea. The quality of education is best served by collaboration and cooperation among members of the profession and by the provision of peer support and assistance, not by competition for monetary rewards.

12. Professionalism and Unionism in Teaching

12.A Overview

Historically, teachers have worked in organizations. Since the time of the one-room school, the daily transactions between teachers and students have been mediated by a lay school board and its appointed administrative officials. Since their inception, school boards have participated in raising and distributing funds, and in supervising teachers through the establishment of rules, policies, and procedures. While the manner and means in which school boards and their officials have exercised control over teachers and over the ways in which teachers practice their craft have undergone considerable change over the years, the basic organizational context of teaching has endured.

Teachers are salaried professionals. In addition, in British Columbia they are now also members of a trade union as defined by the *Industrial Relations Act*. Trade union membership, however, does not negate professional status—teachers still possess specialized knowledge, are bound by codes of professional practice, and are entrusted with a unique social mission.

A close consideration of the oral and written submissions to the Commission revealed a number of ambiguities and anomalies associated with teaching. Most noticeably, there appears to be conflict and confusion in the minds of the public with respect to teachers' simultaneous union membership and claim to professional status. Apparently, the public views the objectives of a trade union as in marked contrast with those of a profession. A profession is seen as providing a specialized and valued service to the public and, in theory at least, is accountable to the public interest for the conduct and performance of its members. A profession therefore typically has a governing body which establishes standards of entry, certification, conduct, and performance and which imposes sanctions against members who fail to meet the conditions for continued practice.

Unions exist to advance collectively the interests of their membership. Typically, unions do not establish conditions for entry nor do they establish standards of conduct and performance. Unions are under no obligation to act in the public interest. Rather, they protect and serve their members and, in so doing, act to preserve their own security. The means whereby a union serves its members is through the establishment of a collective agreement with an employer.

The notion that a 'union of professionals' is a contradiction in terms is without foundation. Professionals of all types are included in bargaining units—in the federal public service, for example, lawyers, accountants, engineers, and architects are included in bargaining unit in the Professional and Scientific category (Beatty and Gunderson, 1979). Self-employed professionals often engage in collective bargaining—physicians, for example, collectively negotiate fee schedules with the government. In the public service case above, the professionals listed are salaried employees, governed not only by their job descriptions and obligations to their governmental employer, but also by the established standards of the professional governing bodies.

Teachers are also salaried professionals and, like many others in that category, perform their work in the context of a formal employment relationship with an employer—the local school board. A tension is immediately generated in such a context in that responsibility to the standards of the profession are separated from the supervisory authority of the school board and its management personnel. In order to establish formal influence over how they perform their work and over the conditions in which they work (two characteristics of a profession), teachers, like unions, take collective action—they bargain.

The results of a collective bargaining process serve to constrain both the employer and the employee. In the case of teachers, the actions of both school boards and teachers are controlled and influenced to varying extents by formal contract. Ideally, the results of teacher-board collective bargaining would require, and enforce, genuine board consultation with teachers before management decisions affecting teachers' work are made.

Past experience with other professional groups, and with teacher groups in other jurisdictions, leads to the conclusion that collective bargaining, though adversarial in nature, is an appropriate mechanism through which the interests of the public, through the elected school board, and the professional ambitions of teachers can be accommodated. Recent provincial legislation granting teachers union certification simply formalizes and legitimates the employer-employee relationship which has always existed between school boards and teachers. Such formalization and legitimation in no way de-professionalize or demean teaching.

12.B The British Columbia Teachers' Federation and the College of Teachers

Prior to the enactment of the *Industrial Relations Act* and the *Teaching Profession Act*, all teachers, principals, supervisors, consultants, and coordinators were required by law to be members of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation (BCTF). In each school district, the BCTF established local associations to which all teaching personnel in that district belonged. All bargaining for salaries and allowances (for positions of special responsibility) and, in some districts, working and learning conditions was undertaken by the local associations with BCTF assistance. Though creations of the BCTF, local associations were regarded as autonomous for bargaining purposes inasmuch as it was the local association which signed the negotiated agreement with the local school board.

The constitutional framework of the relationship between the BCTF and its local chapters was significantly altered by the passage of the *Industrial Relations Act* and the *Teaching Profession Act*. Under these legislative provisions, local teacher associations may, if they wish, belong to the BCTF. The BCTF, unlike previously, now exists at the pleasure of its local associations and legislated, compulsory membership in the BCTF has been eliminated. Despite the removal of compulsory membership, however, all 75 local teacher associations in British Columbia are organized as locals of the BCTF. As a result, individual teachers who are members of a local teachers' association certified as a union under the *Industrial Relations Act* are also deemed by the local to be members of the provincial organization.

The language of the *Teaching Profession Act* suggests that one of the motives for the government's enacting of the *Industrial Relations Act* and the *Teaching Profession Act* was a desire to separate the professional and union functions of teachers. Section 26(3) of the *Teaching Profession Act* assigns a professional development role to a newly created College of Teachers:

(3)The professional development committee may:

(a) carry out, cooperate in, or facilitate programs of professional development whose objectives are to improve the quality of educational services,

(b) cooperate with teacher training institutions in the design and evaluation of teacher training programs leading to certification by the college,

(c) carry out, cooperate in, or facilitate in-service programs designed to ensure the currency of general teacher competence,

(d) in cooperation with the qualifications and discipline committees, develop specific programs to assist individual teachers, and

(e) establish Provincial specialist associations to provide advice on professional development in specific fields of curricula.

In the past, the responsibilities detailed above in sub-sections 3(a) and 3(e) received heavy emphasis by the BCTF through its Provincial Specialist Association (PSA) structure. The responsibilities set out in sub-section 3(b) were previously a function of the Joint Board of Teacher Education—a statutory body with representation from each of the major stakeholder groups, including the BCTF. The tasks outlined in sub-section 3(c) were carried out by a number of agencies—the Ministry of Education, school districts, and the BCTF through its PSAs and its local associations. The activities specified in sub-section 3(d) were not formally specified previously and were practiced only in rare in-

stances through Boards of Reference. The associations referred to in sub-section 3(e) were formerly in place as PSAs of the BCTF. It is this last sub-section which provides the most direct evidence of the government's intent to separate union functions from professional functions.

The intent of the legislation notwithstanding, teachers demonstrated very strong support for the BCTF—evidenced by the overwhelming pro-BCTF vote during local association certification drives and by teacher election of BCTF sponsored/endorsed candidates to the College of Teachers. The College has already made it clear that it does not intend to displace, or compete with, the BCTF with respect to professional development matters. Apparently, the College intends to restrict its own activities to the functions described in sub-sections 3(b) [teacher training] and 3(d) [specific individual assistance]. The tasks set out in sub-sections 3(a), 3(c), and 3(e) will continue as collaborative activities among the BCTF, local associations, PSAs, and local school districts.

In its preparation of the legislation, the government may well have assumed that a separation between professional functions and economic welfare (union) functions would be welcomed by the majority of teachers. If so, the government's assumption was poorly founded, and the lack of consultation and discussion with teachers prior to the introduction of the *Industrial Relations Act* and the *Teaching Profession Act* was perceived by most teachers as further evidence of an anti-teacher stance. The legislation itself was viewed as punitive and, rather than achieving the apparent governmental goal of splitting union and professional functions, served to unify teachers in a concerted and determined effort to preserve the duality of function evidenced by the BCTF.

The BCTF, albeit with a changed constitution reflecting the new nature of local associations and BCTF membership provisions through those associations, will evidently continue its previous activities as a society whose objectives are to advance the cause of public education and to protect the economic welfare of its members. The legislated removal of principals and vice-principals from BCTF membership rolls may well result in a reduction in scope of BCTF activities but it is clear that the organization will continue its professional activities in the areas of professional development, Provincial Specialist Associations, and social action programs. It is also apparent that it will continue to provide support functions to assist local associations in collective bargaining, professional development, personnel assistance, and social activism.

It is in the best interests of public education that efforts by the BCTF to marry professional and union functions on behalf of teachers be understood and supported by other major stakeholders in the educational enterprise. The BCTF is a 'union of professionals' and has, perhaps shakily at times, managed that duality of role for many years. It is clear that, not only does the BCTF want to represent teachers in both professional and union concerns, but also that *teachers want the BCTF as their representative in those regards*. Collaborative efforts to improve that quality of education in the province's schools require that stakeholders and the public recognize, acknowledge, and support that critical and constructive role to be played by the BCTF in the establishment of a positive educational climate and in the definition and implementation of educational change.

13. Conclusions

The goals and expectations for schools described in the many written and oral submissions to the Commission can be reframed to describe the kinds of classroom teachers needed to support the achievement of those goals. What is required is a commitment to the continuing development of a profession of well-educated and enthusiastic individuals prepared to assume expanded professional powers and responsibilities. The provincial education system should be a system in which teachers are valued, are seen as the most critical ingredient, are afforded a revised structure of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and incentives, and provided with a degree of professional autonomy sufficient to attract and retain the most skilled and committed individuals. In return, teachers, both as individuals and as a group, must provide a deep and continuing commitment to the highest standards of professionalism and an expanded acceptance of professional responsibility and accountability for student growth.

The success of the educational enterprise in British Columbia requires more mutual respect and collaboration among major stakeholders than is evident at the present time. Teachers are unlikely to embrace with enthusiasm the responsibilities required in the continuing development of teaching as a profession through adherence to rigorous professional standards unless current working conditions are improved in new structures of professional autonomy and formal influence on how educational services are delivered to students. Similarly, the general public, school boards, and the province are unlikely to approve the costs and loosened bureaucratic controls associated with a greater degree of teacher professionalism unless there are assurances that there will be improvements in students' educational outcomes.

One lesson to be learned from past proposals and initiatives for educational reform and from the legislative responses (or lack of them) to these proposals is that the role to be played by teachers, individually and collectively, is all too often ignored. Teachers are, apparently, often seen as the reasons for reform or as the objects of change rather than as necessary and invaluable partners in defining and implementing change. This policy mindset is surely discouraging to teachers and has contributed to the continuing political 'gridlock' between the government and the British Columbia Teachers' Federation. Any changes contemplated for the province's education system will have to be carried out at the classroom level by teachers. As long as the contribution of teachers in defining such changes is not valued, they can hardly be expected to perform with the necessary assurance and commitment to do their job as well as is possible. It should be remembered that what affects teachers cannot help but affect students either directly or indirectly. If the young people in the classrooms of this province today are to be afforded the opportunity to realize their full potential, teachers must be afforded the opportunity to realize theirs. This report has offered suggestions as to how the realization of teacher potential might be effected.

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